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A NEW

Geographical, Hiſtorical, and Commercial

GRAMMAR;

AND

PRESENT STATE

OF THE SEVERAL

KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD.

CONTAINING

I. The Figures, Motions, and Diſtances of the Planets, according to the Newtonian Syſtem, and the lateſt Obſervations.

II. A general View of the Earth, conſidered as a Planet; with ſeveral uſeful Geographical Definitions and Problems.

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VI. The Birds and Beaſts peculiar to each Country.

VII. Obſervations on the Changes that have been any where obſerved upon the Face of Nature, ſince the moſt early Periods of Hiſtory.

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X. Their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce.

XI. The chief Cities, Structures, Ruins, and artificial Curioſities.

XII. The Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Diſtances of principal Places from London.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

I. A GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX, with the Names of Places alphabetically arranged. II. A TABLE of the COINS of all Nations, and their Value in ENGLISH MONEY. III. A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE of remarkable Events from the Creation to the preſent Time.

BY WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Eſq.

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TO WHICH HAVE BEEN ADDED,

The late DISCOVERIES of Dr. HERSCHEL, and other eminent ASTRONOMERS.

ILLUSTRATED WITH

A CORRECT SET OF MAPS,

Engraved from the moſt recent Obſervations and Draughts of Geographical Travellers.

The SIXTEENTH EDITION, Corrected,

AND CONSIDERABLY ENLARGED.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR CHARLES DILLY, IN THE POULTRY; AND G. G. AND J. ROBINSON, IN PATER-NOSTER ROW.

M.DCC.XCVI.

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THE distinguished approbation which the public have shewn to this work, from the many editions through which it has passed, from the rapidity of the sale of very large impressions, and from the increasing demand which continues to be made for it, is such a striking evidence in its favour, as to produce the fullest conviction of its utility and excellence.

It may, however, be reasonably expected that, at the appearance of this new edition, some account should be given of the improvements which have been made, and of the accession of new matter, which will be found to enrich it.

In an age so celebrated as the present for Geographical science, and for that spirit of adventure, which has explored the most distant countries, it is highly proper that a work of this kind should afford a selection of that information which is most useful and interesting, and faithfully exhibit every thing valuable to be found in the latest voyages and travels. Of these, since the last improved edition of this grammar, in 1785, *a great variety have been published, which have been perused with the most careful attention, and which have furnished many important particulars to the accounts of the different kingdoms upon the continent of* Europe.——*To Dr. Robertson's Historical Disquisitions concerning India; to the splendid and accurate Map of that country by Major Rennell,*

whose

whoſe geographical knowledge has deſervedly gained him the higheſt celebrity; to Major Dirom's narrative of the campaign in the Peninſula, which terminated the war with Tippoo Sultan, in 1792; to the Abbé Groſier's hiſtory of China, and Mr. Franklin's travels in Perſia, we have been much indebted in our progreſs through the immenſe regions of Aſia.——*Of* Africa *little can be ſaid, becauſe little is known. Europeans, at the end of the eighteenth century, are as much unacquainted with the interior parts of that vaſt continent, as if it were ſituated in one of the moſt diſtant planets. However, nothing has been neglected, that could add to the ſmall ſtock of knowledge we have of this quarter of the globe. The travels of Mr. Bruce, the narrative of Mr. Vaillant, the proceedings of the African Aſſociation, and Major Rennell's Memoir and Map of the Northern parts of this vaſt territory, have been very diligently attended to, and from them the moſt valuable information has been extracted.*——*The Geography of* America *owes much to the labours of Mr. Morſe, a gentleman of that country, who viſited in perſon the ſeveral ſtates in the union, and maintained an extenſive correſpondence with men of ſcience. From this authentic ſource, beſides a variety of other particulars, the diviſions of the reſpective ſtates into diſtricts, counties, towns, &c. are now given, to which are added the deſcription of the new-formed ſtates of Kentucky and Vermont.*

As this work is hiſtorical as well as geographical, the perpetual fluctuation of States and human affairs hath rendered ſome conſiderable additions and alterations neceſ-

ſary

ſary in the hiſtorical part. Such have been made in this edition; and the hiſtory of each kingdom is brought down to the preſent time, a particular enlargement has been added to that of our own, and the calamitous events of a neighbouring country have been detailed, which will produce reflections in the mind of every moderate man, favourable to our happy iſland, and to that excellent and well-poiſed conſtitution, formed by the accumulated wiſdom of ages, which we enjoy.

All theſe additions would have ſwelled this volume to an incommodious ſize; therefore, to make room for ſuch inſertions as were abſolutely neceſſary to render the work more perfect, ſome parts, which appeared too diffuſe have been abridged, and others, leſs important, have been omitted. Yet ſo numerous have the additions been, as to enlarge this much beyond the laſt. Though thetw o laſt improved editions exceeded in bulk very conſiderably the preceding ones, this will be found to exceed the laſt by about Forty Pages, and above one hundred of new information.—A proof that great pains have been employed to give the work a juſt and continued claim to general notice and approbation.

Beſides all this, the Maps in this Edition are not only conſiderably improved, but are all new engravings. The diſtinctneſs and accuracy with which they are executed, muſt ſtamp a very ſuperior value upon this popular and uſeful work.

December 1793.

PREFACE.

TO a man ſincerely intereſted in the welfare of ſociety and of his own country, it muſt be particularly agreeable to reflect on the rapid progreſs, and general diffuſion of learning and civility, which within the preſent age have taken place in Great Britain. Whatever may be the caſe in ſome other kingdoms of Europe, we, in this iſland, may boaſt of our ſuperiority to thoſe illiberal prejudices, which not only cramp the genius, but ſour the temper of man, and diſturb all agreeable intercourſe of ſociety. Among us, learning is no longer confined within the ſchools of the philoſophers, or the courts of the great; but, like all the greateſt advantages which heaven has beſtowed on mankind, it is become as univerſal as it is uſeful.

This general diffuſion of knowledge is one effect of that happy conſtitution of government, which, towards the cloſe of the laſt century, was confirmed to us, and which conſtitutes the peculiar glory of this nation. In other countries, the great body of the people poſſeſs little wealth, have little power, and conſequently meet with little reſpect; in Great Britain the people are opulent, have great influence, and claim, of courſe, a proper ſhare of attention. To their improvement, therefore, men of letters have lately directed their ſtudies; as the great body of the people, no leſs than the dignified, the learned, or the wealthy few, have an acknowledged title to be amuſed and inſtructed. Books have been diveſted of the terms of the ſchools, reduced from that ſize which ſuited only the purſes of the rich and the avocations of the ſtudious, and are adapted to perſons of more ordinary fortunes, whoſe attachment to other purſuits admitted of little leiſure for thoſe of knowledge. It is to books of this kind, more than to the works of our Bacons, our Lockes, and our Newtons, that the generality of our countrymen owe that ſuperior improvement, which diſtinguiſhes them from the lower ranks of men in all other countries. To promote and

advance this improvement, is the principal defign of our preſent undertaking. No ſubject appears more intereſting than that we have choſen, and none ſeems capable of being handled in a manner that may render it more generally uſeful.

The knowledge of the world, and of its inhabitants, though not the ſublimeſt purſuit of mankind, it muſt be allowed is that which moſt nearly intereſts them, and to which their abilities are beſt adapted. And books of Geography, which deſcribe the ſituation, extent, and productions of kingdoms; the genius, manners, religion, government, commerce, ſciences, and arts, of all the inhabitants upon earth, promiſe the beſt aſſiſtance for attaining this knowledge.

The Compendium of Geography we now offer to the Public, differs in many particulars from other books on that ſubject. Beſides exhibiting an eaſy diſtinct, and ſyſtematic account of the theory and practice of what may be called Natural Geography, the Author has attempted to render the following performance an intereſting, though compendious, detail of the general hiſtory of the world. The character of nations depends on a combination of a great many circumſtances, which reciprocally affect each other. There is a nearer connection between the learning, the commerce, the governments, &c. of a ſtate, than moſt people ſeem to apprehend. In a work of this kind, which pretends to include moral, or political, as well as natural Geography, no one of theſe objects ſhould paſs unnoticed. The omiſſion of any one of them would, in reality, deprive us of a branch of knowledge, not only intereſting in itſelf, but which is abſolutely neceſſary, for enabling us to form an adequate and comprehenſive notion of the ſubject in general. We have thought it neceſſary, therefore, to add a new article to this work, which comprehends the hiſtory and preſent ſtate of learning in the ſeveral countries we deſcribe, with the characters of ſuch perſons as have been moſt eminent in the various departments of letters and philoſophy. This ſubject will, on a little reflection, appear altogether requiſite, when we conſider the powerful influence of learning upon the manners, government, and general character of nations. Theſe objects, indeed, till of late, ſeldom found a place in geographical performances;

accounts; and even where they have been introduced, are by no means handled in an entertaining or inſtructive manner. Neither is this to be altogether imputed to the fault of geographical writers. The greater part of travellers, acting ſolely under the influence of avarice, the paſſion which firſt induced them to quit their native land, were at little pains, and were indeed ill qualified, to collect ſuch materials as are proper for gratifying our curioſity, with regard to theſe particulars. The geographer, then, who could only employ the materials put into his hands, was not enabled to give us any important information upon ſuch ſubjects. In the courſe of the preſent century, however, men have begun to travel from different motives. A thirſt for knowledge as well as for gold, has led many into diſtant lands. Theſe they have explored with a philoſophic attention; and by laying open the internal ſprings of action, by which the inhabitants of different regions are actuated, exhibit to us a natural and ſtriking picture of human manners, under the various ſtages of barbarity and refinement. Without manifeſt impropriety, we could not avail ourſelves of their labours, by means of which we have been enabled to give a more copious, and a more perfect detail of what is called Political Geography, than has hitherto appeared.

In conſidering the preſent ſtate of nations, few circumſtances are of more importance than their mutual intercourſe. This is chiefly brought about by commerce, the prime mover in the œconomy of modern ſtates, and of which, therefore, we have never loſt ſight in the preſent undertaking.

We are ſenſible that a reader could not examine the preſent ſtate of nations with much entertainment or inſtruction, unleſs he was alſo made acquainted with their ſituation during the preceding ages, and of the various revolutions and events, by the operation of which they have aſſumed their preſent form and appearance. This conſtitutes the hiſtorical part of our work; a department which we have endeavoured to execute in a manner entirely new. Inſtead of fatiguing the reader with a dry detail of newſpaper occurrences, no way connected with one another, or with the general plan of the whole, we have mentioned only ſuch facts as are intereſting, either in themſelves, or from their relation to objects of importance.

tance. Inſtead of a meagre index of incoherent incidents, we have drawn up a regular and connected epitome of the hiſtory of each country; ſuch an epitome as may be read with equal pleaſure and advantage, and which may be conſidered as a proper introduction to more copious accounts.

Having, through the whole of the work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and, in treating of their particular hiſtory, ſometimes carried our reſearches beyond the limits of modern times, we have thought it neceſſary, for the ſatisfaction of ſuch readers as are unacquainted with claſſical learning, to begin our hiſtorical Introduction with the remote ages of antiquity. By inſerting an account of the ancient world in a book of geography, we afford an opportunity to the reader of comparing together, not only the manners, government, and arts of different nations, as they now appear, but as they ſubſiſted in ancient ages; which exhibiting a general map, as it were, of the hiſtory of mankind, renders our work more complete than any geographical treatiſe extant.

In the execution of our deſign, we have all along endeavoured to obſerve order and perſpicuity. Elegance we have ſacrificed to brevity; happy to catch the leading features which diſtinguiſh the characters of nations, and by a few ſtrokes to hit off, though not completely to finiſh, the picture of mankind in ancient and modern times.

What has enabled us to compriſe ſo many ſubjects within the narrow bounds of this work, is the omiſſion of many immaterial circumſtances, which are recorded in other performances of the ſame kind, and of all thoſe fabulous accounts or deſcriptions, which to the diſgrace of the human underſtanding, ſwell the works of geographers; though the falſity of them, both from their own nature, and the concurring teſtimony of the moſt enlightened and beſt informed travellers and hiſtorians, has been long ſince detected.

As to particular parts of the work, we have been more or leſs diffuſe, according to their importance to us as men, and as ſubjects of Great Britain. Our own country, in both reſpects, deſerved the greateſt ſhare of our attention. Great Britain, though ſhe cannot boaſt of a more luxuriant ſoil or happier climate than many other countries, has advantages of another and ſuperior kind, which make her the delight, the envy, and the miſtreſs of the world: theſe

theſe are, the equity of her laws, the freedom of her political conſtitution, and the moderation of her religious ſyſtem. With regard to the Britiſh empire we have therefore been ſingularly copious.

Next to Great Britain, we have been moſt particular upon the other ſtates of Europe; and always in proportion as they preſent us with the largeſt field for uſeful reflection. By comparing together our accounts of the European nations, the important ſyſtem of practical knowledge is inculcated, and a thouſand arguments will appear in favour of a mild religion, a free government, and an extended, unreſtrained commerce.

Europe having occupied ſo large a part of our volume, Aſia next claims our attention; which, however, though in ſome reſpects the moſt famous quarter of the world, offers, when compared to Europe, extremely little for our entertainment or inſtruction. In Aſia, a ſtrong attachment to ancient cuſtoms, and the weight of tyrannical power, bear down the active genius of man, and prevent that variety in manners and character, which diſtinguiſhes the European nations.

In Africa the human mind ſeems degraded below its natural ſtate. To dwell long upon the manners of this country, a country ſo immerſed in rudeneſs and barbarity, beſides that it could afford little inſtruction, would be diſguſting to every lover of mankind. Add to this, that the inhabitants of Africa, deprived of all arts and ſciences, without which the human mind remains torpid and inactive, diſcover no great variety in manners or character. A gloomy ſameneſs almoſt every where prevails! and the trifling diſtinctions which are diſcovered among them, ſeem rather to ariſe from an exceſs of brutality on the one hand, than from any perceptible approaches towards refinement on the other. But though theſe quarters of the globe are treated leſs extenſively than Europe, there is no diſtrict of them, however barren or ſavage, entirely omitted.

America, whether conſidered as an immenſe continent, inhabited by an endleſs variety of different people, or as a country intimately connected with Europe by the ties of commerce and government, deſerves very particular attention. The bold diſcovery, and barbarous conqueſt of this New World, and the manners and prejudices of the original inhabitants, are objects which, together with the

deſcription

deſcription of the country, deſervedly occupy no ſmall ſhare of this performance.

In treating of ſuch a variety of ſubjects, ſome leſs obvious particulars, no doubt, muſt eſcape our notice. But if our general plan be good, and the outlines and chief figures ſketched with truth and judgment, the candour of the learned, we hope, will excuſe imperfections which are unavoidable in a work of this extenſive kind.

We cannot without exceeding the bounds of a Preface inſiſt upon the other parts of our plan. The Maps, which are executed with care, by the beſt-informed artiſts in theſe kingdoms, will, we hope, afford ſatisfaction. The ſcience of natural geography, for want of proper encouragement from thoſe who are alone capable of giving it, ſtill remains in a very imperfect ſtate; and the exact diviſions and extent of countries, for want of geometrical ſurveys, are far from being well aſcertained. This conſideration has induced us to adopt the moſt unexceptionable of Templeman's Tables, which, if they give not the exacteſt account, afford at leaſt a general idea of this ſubject; which is all indeed we can attain, until the geographical ſcience arrives at greater perfection.

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INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SECT. I.

Of the PLANETS, the COMETS, the FIXED STARS, and the different SYSTEMS of the UNIVERSE.

THE ſcience of GEOGRAPHY cannot be completely underſtood without conſidering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a conſiderable diſtance from it. But the ſcience which treats of the planets and other heavenly bodies, is called ASTRONOMY. Hence the neceſſity of beginning this work with an account of the heavenly bodies. Of theſe, the moſt conſpicuous is that glorious luminary, the Sun, the fountain of light and heat to the ſeveral planets which move round it, and which, together with the ſun, compoſe what aſtronomers have called the Solar Syſtem. The way or path in which the planets move round the ſun, is called their Orbit; and it is now fully proved by aſtronomers, that there are ſeven planets which move round the ſun, each in its own orbit. The names of theſe, according to their nearneſs to the centre or middle point of the ſun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus. The two firſt, becauſe they move within the orbit of the earth (being nearer the ſun), are called *inferior* planets, or, perhaps more properly, *interior* or *inner* planets; the four laſt, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called *ſuperior*, or, perhaps more properly, *exterior* or *outer* planets. If we can form a notion of the manner in which any one of theſe planets, ſuppoſe our earth, moves round the ſun, we can eaſily conceive the manner in which all the reſt do it. We ſhall only therefore particularly conſider the motion of the earth, or planet on which we live, leaving that of the others to be collected from a table, which we ſhall ſet down, with ſuch explications as may render it intelligible to the meaneſt capacity.

The earth upon which we live was long conſidered as one large extenſive plane, of no remarkable thickneſs; and the regions below it were ſuppoſed to be the habitations of ſpirits. The heavens, in which the ſun, moon, and ſtars, appeared to move daily from eaſt to weſt, were conceived to be at no great diſtance from it, and to be only deſigned for the uſe or ornament of our earth. Several reaſons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable; it is needleſs to mention them, becauſe we have now a ſufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators, who have actually ſailed round it: as from that of Magellan's ſhip, which was the firſt that circumnavigated the globe, ſailing

eaſt from a port in Europe in 1519, and returning to the ſame after a voyage of 1124 days, without apparently altering his direction, any more than a fly would appear to do in moving round a ball of wax.

The roundneſs of the earth being thoroughly eſtabliſhed, a way was thereby naturally opened for the diſcovery of its motion. For while it was conſidered as a plane, mankind had an obſcure notion of its being ſupported, like a ſcaffolding, on pillars, though they could not tell what ſupported theſe. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion. This is confirmed by conſidering, that, if the earth did not move round the ſun, not only the ſun, but all the ſtars and planets, muſt move round the earth. Now, as aſtronomers, by reckonings founded on the ſureſt obſervations, have been able to gueſs pretty nearly at the diſtances of the heavenly bodies from the earth and from each other, juſt as every body that knows the firſt elements of mathematics can meaſure the height of a ſteeple, or any object placed on it,—it appeared that, if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we muſt ſuppoſe them endowed with a motion or velocity ſo immenſe as to exceed all conception: whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the ſun in the ſpace of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in 24 hours.

To form a conception of theſe two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard-table or bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green or table, not by ſliding along like a plane upon wood, or a ſlate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre or middle of the ball, and ending on its ſurface in two points called its poles. Conceiving the matter then in this way, and that the earth, in the ſpace of 24 hours, móves from weſt to eaſt, the inhabitants on the ſurface of it, like men on the deck of a ſhip, who are inſenſible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will conceive that the ſun and ſtars move from eaſt to weſt in the ſame time of 24 hours, in which they, along with the earth, move from weſt to eaſt. This daily or diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will enable us eaſily to form a notion of its annual or yearly motion round the ſun. For as that luminary ſeems to have a daily motion round our earth, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth round its own axis, ſo, in the courſe of a year, he ſeems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to riſe and ſet in different points of them, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the ſun, which it completes in the ſpace of a year. Now as to the firſt of theſe motions we owe the difference of day and night, ſo to the ſecond we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the ſeaſons of the year.

THE PLANETS.] Thus much being ſaid with regard to the motion of the earth, which the ſmalleſt reflection may lead us to apply to the other planets,—we muſt obſerve, before exhibiting our table, that, beſides the ſeven planets already mentioned, which move round the ſun, there are fourteen other bodies which move round four of theſe, in the ſame manner as they do round the ſun; and of theſe our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four; Saturn has ſeven (two * of theſe having been

* See the 80th vol. of the Philoſophical Tranſactions.

lately

lately discovered by Dr. Herschell); and the Georgium Sidus has two, as that excellent astronomer has shown. These are all called moons, from their agreeing with our moon, which was first attended to; and sometimes they are called *secondary* planets, because they seem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, about which they move, and which are called *primary*.

There are but two observations more, necessary for understanding the following table. They are these: we have already said that the annual motion of the earth occasioned the diversity of seasons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel, or in a line with the axis of its orbit; because then the same parts of the earth would be turned towards the sun in every diurnal revolution; which would deprive mankind of the grateful vicissitudes of the seasons, arising from the difference in length of the days and nights. This therefore is not the case:—the axis of the earth is inclined to the plane of the earth's orbit, which we may conceive by supposing a spindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball directly forwards, while one end of the spindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards some quarter of the heavens, we may form a notion of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the spindle to the ground. The same observation applies to some of the other planets, as may be seen from the table. The only thing that now remains, is to consider what is meant by the *mean distances* of the planets from the sun. In order to understand this, we must learn that the orbit, or path which a planet describes, were it to be marked out, would not be quite round or circular, but in the shape of a figure called an ellipsis, which, though resembling a circle, is longer than broad. Hence the same planet is not always at the same distance from the sun; and the mean distance of it is that which is exactly betwixt its greatest and least distance. Here follows the table:

A TABLE of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the several Planets in the Solar System.

Names of the planets.	Diameters in English Miles.	Meandistances from the sun, as determined from observations of the transit of Venus, in 1761.	Annual period round the sun.	Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of axis to orbit.
			Y. D. H.	D. H. M.			
Sun	890,000			25 6 0		3,818	8° 0′ 0″
Mercury	3,000	36,841,468	0 87 23	unknown	109,699	unknw	unknown
Venus	7,906	68,891,486	0 224 17	24 8 0	80,295	43	75 0 0
Earth	7,970	95,173,000	1 0 0	1 0 0	68,243	1,042	23 29 0
Moon	2,180	ditto	1 0 0	29 12 44	22,290	9½	2 10 0
Mars	5,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	0 24 40	55,287	556	0 0 0
Jupiter	94,000	494,990,976	11 314 18	0 9 56	29,083	25,920	0 0 0
Saturn	78,000	907,956,130	22 167 6	unknown	22,101	unknw	unknown
Georgium Sidus	34,217	1,815,912,260	83 121 0	unknown	unknwn	unknw	0 43 35

The Georgian planet (or Georgium Sidus) having greatly excited the attention of the learned world, it would be unpardonable, in a work of this nature to omit giving the reader a brief account of it. It was discovered by Dr. Herſchell, with his teleſcope of great ſize and power, in the year 1781. For this diſcovery he obtained from the Royal Society the honorary recompenſe of ſir Godfrey Copley's medal. In ſo recent a diſcovery of a planet ſo diſtant, many particulars cannot be expected. We have introduced ſome account of it into the above table from the firſt authority.

Though the Georgium Sidus was not known as a planet till the time of Dr. Herſchell, yet there are many reaſons to ſuppoſe it had been ſeen before, but had then been conſidered as a fixed ſtar; but, from the ſteadineſs of its light, from its diameter being increaſed by high magnifying powers, and from the change he had obſerved in its ſituation, he concluded that it was a comet; but in a little time, he, with others, determined that it was a planet, from its vicinity to the ecliptic, the direction of its motion, being ſtationary in the time, and in ſuch circumſtances as correſpond with ſimilar appearances in other planets.—When the moon is abſent, it may be ſeen by the naked eye; and the diſcovery of two ſatellites attending it ſeems to confer upon it a dignity, and to raiſe it into a more conſpicuous ſituation among the great bodies of our ſolar ſyſtem. As the diſtances of the planets, when marked in miles, are a burden to the memory, aſtronomers often expreſs their mean diſtances in a ſhorter way, by ſuppoſing the diſtance from the earth to the ſun to be divided into ten parts. Mercury may then be eſtimated at four of ſuch parts from the ſun, Venus at ſeven, the Earth at ten, Mars at fifteen, Jupiter at fifty-two, Saturn at ninety-five, and the Georgium Sidus at one hundred and ninety.

Comets.] The reader having obtained an idea of the planets from the table, and the previous obſervations neceſſary for underſtanding it, muſt next turn his attention to the comets, which, as they revolve round our ſun, are a part of the ſolar ſyſtem. Theſe, deſcending from the far diſtant parts of the ſyſtem with great rapidity, ſurpriſe us with their ſingular appearance of a train or tail, which accompanies them; become viſible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a ſhort ſtay, go off again to vaſt diſtances, and diſappear. Though ſome of the ancients had more juſt notions of them, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like to thoſe we ſee in it every night, and in a few moments vaniſhing, no care was taken to obſerve or record their phænomena accurately, till of late. Hence this part of aſtronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is that they are ſolid, compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the ſame laws of gravity, ſo as to deſcribe equal areas in proportional times by radii drawn to the common centre. They move about the ſun in very eccentric ellipſes, and are of much greater denſity than the earth; for ſome of them are heated in every period to ſuch a degree as would vitrify or diſſipate any ſubſtance known to us. Sir Iſaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when neareſt the ſun, to be 2000 times hotter then red-hot iron, and that, being thus heated, it muſt retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period ſhould be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only 575. It is believed that there are at leaſt 21 comets belonging to our ſyſtem, moving in various directions; and all thoſe which have been obſerved have moved through the etherial regions

regions and the orbits of the planets, without ſuffering the leaſt ſenſible reſiſtance in their motions; which ſufficiently proves that the planets do not move in ſolid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years; and of theſe, that which appeared in 1680 is the moſt remarkable. This comet, at its greateſt diſtance, is about 11 thouſand, 200 millions of miles from the ſun, while its leaſt diſtance from the centre of the ſun is about 490 thouſand miles; being leſs than one third part of the ſun's ſemidiameter from his ſurface. In that part of its orbit which is neareſt the ſun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; and the ſun, as ſeen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, conſequently 40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The aſtoniſhing diſtance that this comet runs out into empty ſpace naturally ſuggeſts to our imagination the vaſt diſtance between our ſun and the neareſt of the fixed ſtars, of whoſe attractions all the comets muſt keep clear, to return periodically and go round the ſun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of aſtronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to thoſe of the great ſir Iſaac Newton on this ſubject. Our earth was out of the way, when this comet laſt paſſed near her orbit: but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always paſs by us with ſo little effect; for it may be here obſerved that the comet, in one part of its orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth; ſo that, in ſome revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very conſiderable, if not fatal, effects upon it. See Newton, Halley, Gregory, Keill, Mac Laurin, Derham, Ferguſon, and Whiſton.

THE FIXED STARS.] Having thus briefly ſurveyed the ſolar ſyſtem, which, though great in itſelf, is ſmall in compariſon with the immenſity of the univerſe, we next proceed to the contemplation of thoſe other vaſt bodies, called the *fixed ſtars*, which, being of infinite uſe in the practice of geography, claim a particular notice in this work. Theſe fixed ſtars are diſtinguiſhed by the naked eye from the planets, by being leſs bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the ſtars. This ariſes from their being ſo extremely ſmall, that the interpoſition of the leaſt body, of which there are many conſtantly floating in the air, deprives us of the ſight of them; when the interpoſed body changes its place, we again ſee the ſtar; and this ſucceſſion being perpetual, occaſions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed ſtars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their ſituation, with regard to each other; as the planets, from what we have already ſaid, muſt evidently be always changing theirs. The ſtars which are neareſt to us ſeem largeſt, and are therefore called ſtars of the firſt magnitude. Thoſe of the ſecond magnitude appear leſs, being at a greater diſtance; and ſo proceeding on to the ſixth magnitude, which includes all the fixed ſtars that are viſible without a teleſcope. As to their number, though in a clear winter's night without moonſhine, they ſeem to be innumerable (which is owing to their ſtrong ſparkling, and our looking at them in a confuſed manner), yet when the whole firmament is divided, as it has been done by the ancients, into ſigns and conſtellations, the number that can at any time be ſeen with the naked eye, is not above a thouſand. Since the invention of teleſcopes, indeed, the number of the fixed ſtars has been juſtly con-

ſidered as immenſe; becauſe the greater perfection we arrive at in our glaſſes, the more ſtars always appear to us. Mr. Flamſtead, late royal aſtronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about 3000 ſtars. Theſe are called teleſcopic ſtars, from their being inviſible without the aſſiſtance of the teleſcope. Dr. Herſchell, to whoſe ingenuity and aſſiduity the aſtronomical world is ſo much indebted, has evinced what great diſcoveries may be made by improvements in the inſtruments of obſervation. In ſpeaking here of his diſcoveries, I ſhall uſe the words of M. de la Lande: "In paſſing rapidly over the heavens with his new "teleſcope, the univerſe increaſed under his eye;" 44,000 ſtars, ſeen in the "ſpace of a few degrees, ſeemed to indicate that there were ſeventy-five "millions in the heavens." But what are all theſe, when compared to thoſe that fill the whole expanſe, the boundleſs fields of æther? Indeed the immenſity of the univerſe muſt contain ſuch numbers, as would exceed the utmoſt ſtretch of the human imagination; for who can ſay how far the univerſe extends, or point out thoſe limits, where the Creator ſtayed "his rapid wheels," or where he "fixed the golden compaſſes?"

The immenſe diſtance of the fixed ſtars from our earth, and from each other, is, of all conſiderations, the moſt proper for raiſing our ideas of the works of God. For, notwithſtanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at leaſt 190 millions of miles in diameter) round the ſun, the diſtance of a fixed ſtar is not ſenſibly affected by it; ſo that the ſtar does not appear to be any nearer us when the earth is in that part of its orbit neareſt the ſtar, than it ſeemed to be when the earth was at the moſt diſtant part of its orbit, or 190 millions of miles farther removed from the ſame ſtar. The ſtar neareſt us, and conſequently the largeſt in appearance, is the dog-ſtar, or Sirius. Modern diſcoveries make it probable that each of thoſe fixed ſtars is a ſun, having planets and comets revolving round it, as our ſun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now the dog-ſtar appears 27,000 times leſs than the ſun; and, as the diſtance of the ſtars muſt be greater in proportion as they ſeem leſs, mathematicians have computed the diſtance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thouſand millions of miles. A ray of light, therefore, though its motion is ſo quick as to be commonly thought inſtantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the ſtars to us than we do in making a Weſt India voyage. A ſound would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years; which, next to light, is conſidered as the quickeſt body we are acquainted with. And a cannon ball, flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The ſtars, being at ſuch immenſe diſtances from the ſun, cannot poſſibly receive from him ſo ſtrong a light as they ſeem to have, nor any brightneſs ſufficient to make them viſible to us. For the ſun's rays muſt be ſo ſcattered and diſſipated before they reach ſuch remote objects, that they can never be tranſmitted back to our eyes, ſo as to render thoſe objects viſible by reflection. The ſtars therefore ſhine with their own native and unborrowed luſtre, as the ſun does; and ſince each particular ſtar, as well as the ſun, is confined to a particular portion of ſpace, it is plain that the ſtars are of the ſame nature with the ſun.

It is far from probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wiſdom, and does nothing in vain, ſhould create ſo many glorious ſuns, fit for ſo many important purpoſes, and place them at ſuch diſtances from each other, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their

influences.

influences. Whoever imagines that they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, muſt have a very ſuperficial knowledge of aſtronomy*, and a mean opinion of the divine wiſdom; ſince, by an infinitely leſs exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one ſingle additional moon.

Inſtead then of one ſun and one world only, in the univerſe, as the unſkilful in aſtronomy imagine, that ſcience diſcovers to us ſuch an inconceivable number of ſuns, ſyſtems, and worlds, diſperſed through boundleſs ſpace, that if our ſun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to it, were annihilated, they would be no more miſſed by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of ſand from the ſea-ſhore; the ſpace they poſſeſs, being comparatively ſo ſmall, that it would ſcarcely be a ſenſible blank in the univerſe, although the Georgium Sidus, the outermoſt of our planets, revolves about the ſun in an orbit of 10,830 millions of miles in circumference, and ſome of our comets make excurſions upwards of ten thouſand millions of miles beyond the orbit of the Georgium Sidus; and yet, at that amazing diſtance, they are incomparably nearer to the ſun than to any of the ſtars, as is evident from their keeping clear of the attracting power of all the ſtars, and returning periodically by virtue of the ſun's attraction.

From what we know of our own ſyſtem, it may be reaſonably concluded that all the reſt are with equal wiſdom contrived, ſituated, and provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants. For although there is an almoſt infinite variety in the parts of the creation which we have opportunities of examining, yet there is a general analogy running through and connecting all the parts into one ſcheme, one deſign, one whole!

Since the fixed ſtars are prodigious ſpheres of fire, like our ſun, and at inconceivable diſtances from each other as well as from us, it is reaſonable to conclude they are made for the ſame purpoſes that the ſun is, —each to beſtow light, heat, and vegetation on a certain number of inhabited planets, kept by gravitation within the ſphere of its activity.

What an auguſt, what an amazing conception, if human imagination can conceive it, does this give of the works of the Creator! Thouſands and thouſands of ſuns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immenſe diſtances from each other, attended by ten thouſand times ten thouſand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths preſcribed them; and theſe worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings, formed for endleſs progreſſion in perfection and felicity!

If ſo much power, wiſdom, goodneſs, and magnificence is diſplayed in the material creation, which is the leaſt conſiderable part of the univerſe, how great, how wiſe, how good muſt HE be, who made and governs the whole!

THE CONSTELLATIONS.] The *firſt people* who paid much attention to the fixed ſtars, were the *ſhepherds* in the beautiful plains of Egypt and Babylon; who, partly for amuſement, and partly with a view to direct

* Eſpecially ſince there are many ſtars which are not viſible without the aſſiſtance of a good teleſcope; and therefore, inſtead of giving light to this world, they can only be ſeen by a few aſtronomers.

them in travelling during the night, obſerved the ſituation of theſe celeſtial bodies. Endowed with a lively fancy, they divided the ſtars into different companies or conſtellations, each of which they ſuppoſed to repreſent the image of ſome animal, or other terreſtrial object. The peaſants in our own country do the ſame thing; for they diſtinguiſh that great northern conſtellation, which aſtronomers call the Urſa Major, by the name of the Plough, the figure of which it certainly may repreſent, with a very little help from the fancy. But the conſtellations in general have preſerved the names which were given them by the ancients; and they are reckoned 21 *northern*, and 12 *ſouthern*; but the moderns have increaſed the number of the northern to 36, and of the ſouthern to 32. Beſides theſe, there are the 12 *ſigns* or conſtellations in the Zodiac, as it is called, from a Greek word, ſignifying an animal, becauſe each of theſe 12 is ſuppoſed to repreſent ſome animal. This is a great circle which divides the heavens into two equal parts, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. In the mean time we ſhall conclude this ſection with an account of the riſe and progreſs of aſtronomy, and the revolutions which have taken place in that ſcience.

DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE.] Mankind muſt have made a very conſiderable improvement in obſerving the motions of the heavenly bodies, before they could ſo far diſengage themſelves from the prejudices of ſenſe and popular opinion, as to believe that the earth upon which we live was not fixed and immovable. We find accordingly, that Thales, the Mileſian, who, about 580 years before Chriſt, firſt taught aſtronomy in Europe, had gone ſo far in this ſubject as to calculate eclipſes, or interpoſitions of the moon between the earth and the ſun, or of the earth between the ſun and the moon (the nature of which may be eaſily underſtood, from what we have already obſerved). Pythagoras, a native of Samos, flouriſhed about 50 years after Thales, and was, no doubt, equally well acquainted with the motion of the heavenly bodies. This led Pythagoras to conceive an idea, which there is no reaſon to believe had ever been thought of before, namely, that the earth itſelf was in motion, and that the ſun was at reſt. He found that it was impoſſible, in any other way, to give a conſiſtent account of the heavenly motions. His ſyſtem, however, was ſo extremely oppoſite to all the prejudices of ſenſe and opinion, that it never made great progreſs, nor was ever widely diffuſed in the ancient world. The philoſophers of antiquity, deſpairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reaſon, ſet themſelves to adapt the one to the other, and to form a reconciliation between them. This was the caſe with Ptolemy, an Egyptian philoſopher, who flouriſhed 138 years before Chriſt. He ſuppoſed, with the vulgar, who meaſure every thing by themſelves, that the earth was fixed immovably in the centre of the univerſe, and that the ſeven planets, conſidering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it; above them was the firmament of fixed ſtars, then the cryſtalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and laſt of all, the cœlum empyrium, or heaven of heavens. All theſe vaſt orbs he ſuppoſed to move round the earth once in 24 hours, and, beſides that, in certain ſtated and periodical times. To account for theſe motions, he was obliged to conceive a number of circles, called eccentrics and epicycles, croſſing and interfering with each other. This ſyſtem was univerſally maintained by the peripatetic philoſophers, who were the moſt conſiderable ſect in Europe from the time of Ptolemy to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century.

At

At length, Copernicus, a native of Poland, a bold and original genius, adopted the Pythagorean or true ſyſtem of the univerſe, and publiſhed it to the world in the year 1530. This doctrine had been ſo long in obſcurity, that the reſtorer of it was conſidered as the inventor; and the ſyſtem obtained the name of the Copernican philoſophy, though only revived by that great man.

Europe, however, was ſtill immerſed in ignorance; and the general ideas of the world were not able to keep pace with thoſe of a refined philoſophy. This occaſioned Copernicus to have few abettors, but many opponents. Tycho Brahe, in particular, a noble Dane, ſenſible of the defects of the Ptolemaic ſyſtem, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured, about 1586, to eſtabliſh a new ſyſtem of his own, which was ſtill more perplexed and embarraſſed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the centre of its orbit; and it makes the ſun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The ſun, however, with all the planets, is ſuppoſed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in the twenty-four hours. This ſyſtem, notwithſtanding its abſurdity, met with many advocates. Longomontanus, and others, ſo far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they inſiſted that it had no annual motion.

About this time, after a darkneſs of many ſucceſſive ages, the firſt dawn of learning and taſte began to appear in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate aſtronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the uſe of teleſcopes, which furniſhed new arguments in ſupport of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The fury and bigotry of the clergy, indeed, had almoſt checked this flouriſhing bud: Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican ſyſtem as a damnable hereſy. The happy reformation in religion, however, placed a great part of Europe beyond the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the ſcriptures were not given for explaining ſyſtems of natural philoſophy, but for a much nobler purpoſe,—to make us juſt, virtuous, and humane; that, inſtead of oppoſing the word of God, which, in ſpeaking of natural things, ſuits itſelf to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employed our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to God himſelf, in tracing the nature of his works, which, the more they are conſidered, afford us the greater reaſon to admire his glorious attributes of power, wiſdom, and goodneſs. From this time, therefore, noble diſcoveries were made in all the branches of aſtronomy. Not only the motions of the heavenly bodies were clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was diſcovered and illuſtrated by the immortal Newton. This law is called *Gravity* or *Attraction*, and is the ſame by which any body falls to the ground, when diſengaged from what ſupported it. It has been demonſtrated, that this ſame law, which keeps the ſea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the ſurface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the univerſe, keeps the planets in their orbits, and preſerves the whole fabric of nature from confuſion and diſorder.

SECT. II.

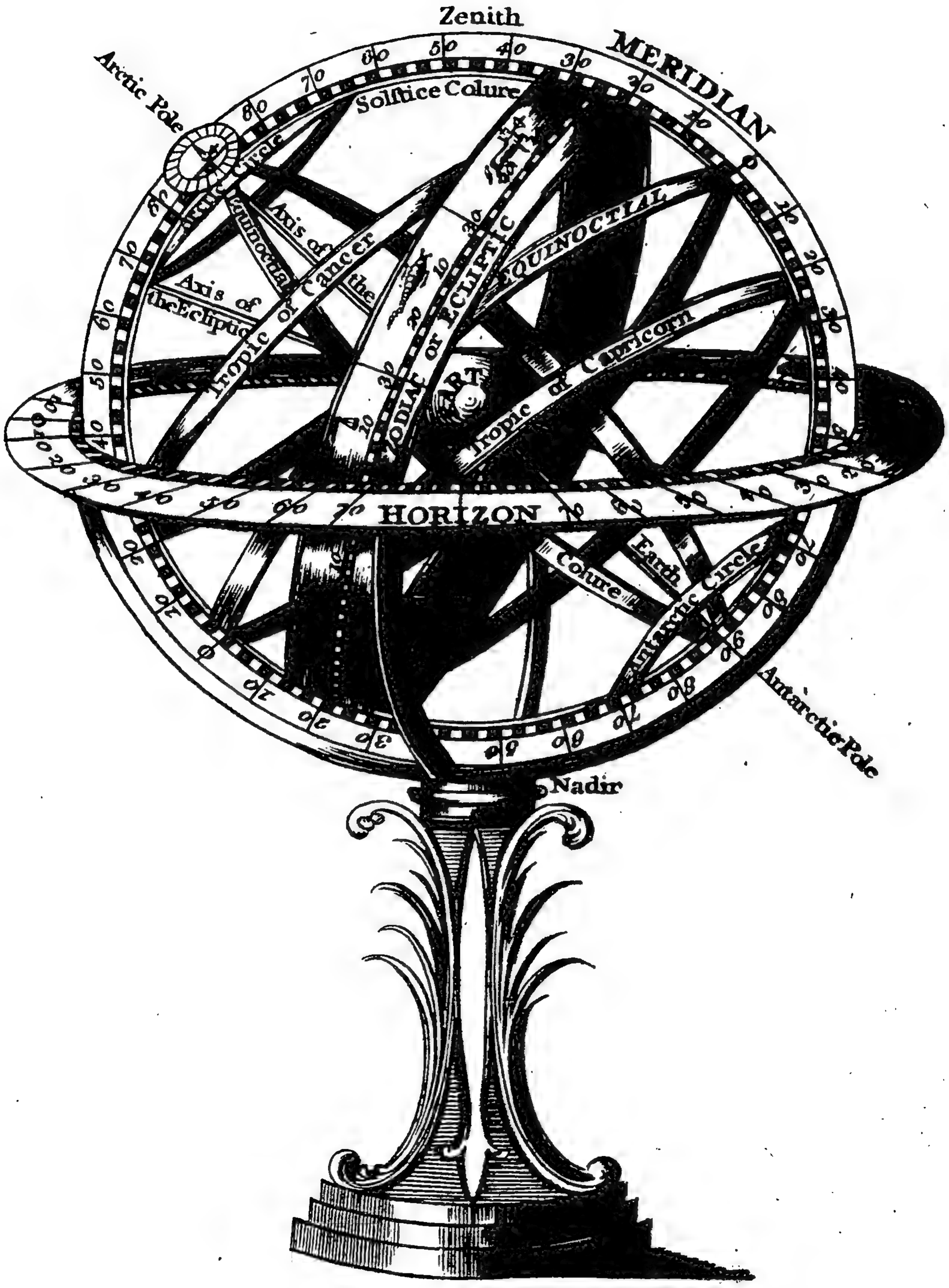
Of the Doctrine of the SPHERE.

HAVING, in the foregoing Section, treated of the UNIVERSE in general, in which the earth has been conſidered as a planet, we now proceed to the doctrine of the SPHERE, which ought always to be premiſed before that of the Globe or earth, as we ſhall ſee in the next Section. In handling this ſubject, we ſhall conſider the earth as at reſt, and the heavenly bodies, as performing their revolutions around it. This method cannot lead the reader into any miſtake, ſince we have previouſly explained the true ſyſtem of the univerſe, from which it appears, that it is the *real* motion of the earth which occaſions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is beſides attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our ſenſes, which always leads us to conceive the matter in this way. The imagination therefore is not put on the ſtretch; the idea is eaſy and familiar; and, in delivering the elements of ſcience, this object cannot be too much attended to.

N. B. In order more clearly to comprehend what follows, the reader may occaſionally turn his eye to the figure of the artificial ſphere on the oppoſite page.

The ancients obſerved, that all the ſtars turned (in appearance) round the earth, from eaſt to weſt, in twenty-four hours; that the circles which they deſcribed in thoſe revolutions, were parallel to each other, but not of the ſame magnitude; thoſe paſſing over the middle of the earth being the largeſt of all, while the reſt diminiſhed in proportion to their diſtance from it. They alſo obſerved, that there were two points in the heavens, which always preſerved the ſame ſituation. Theſe points they termed celeſtial poles, becauſe the heavens ſeemed to turn round them. In order to imitate theſe motions, they invented what is called the *Artificial Sphere*, through the centre of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an *Axis*, whoſe extremities were fixed to the immoveable points called *Poles*. They farther obſerved, that on the 20th of March, and 23d of September, the circle deſcribed by the ſun was at an equal diſtance from both of the poles. This circle, therefore, muſt divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the *Equator* or *Equaller*. It was alſo called the *Equinoctial Line*, becauſe the ſun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having alſo obſerved, that from the 21ſt of June to the 22d of December, the ſun advanced every day towards a certain point, and having arrived there, returned towards that from whence it ſet out, from the 22d of December to the 21ſt of June,—they fixed *theſe points*, which they called *Solſtices*, becauſe the direct motion of the ſun was ſtopped at them; and repreſented the bounds of the ſun's motion, by two circles, which they named *Tropics*, becauſe the ſun no ſooner arrived there than he turned back. Aſtronomers obſerving the motion of the ſun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every 24 hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic*, and it paſſes through certain conſtellations, diſtinguiſhed by the names of animals, in a *zone* called the *Zodiac*. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one ſide, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely, at an angle of 23 degrees, 29 minutes,

The Armillary Sphere.



minutes. the ſun's greateſt declination. To expreſs this motion, they ſuppoſed two points in the heavens, equally diſtant from and parallel to this circle, which they called the *Poles* of the zodiac, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, deſcribes the *two polar circles*. In the artificial ſphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles, by two other circles called *Colures*, which ſerve to mark the points of the ſolſtices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients alſo obſerved that when the ſun was in any point of his courſe, all the people inhabiting directly north and ſouth, as far as the poles, have noon at the ſame time. This gave occaſion to imagine a circle paſſing through the poles of the world, which they called a *Meridian*, and which is immovable in the artificial ſphere, as well as the horizon; which is another circle repreſenting the bounds betwixt the two hemiſpheres, or half ſpheres, viz. that which is above it, and that which is below it,

SECT. III.

The Doctrine of the GLOBE naturally follows that of the SPHERE.

BY the Doctrine of the GLOBE is meant the repreſentation of the different places and countries on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball. Now the manner in which geographers have repreſented the ſituation of one place upon this earth with regard to another, or with regard to the earth in general, has been by transferring the circles of the ſphere to the artificial globe; and this is the only method they could employ. This will be abundantly obvious from an example. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator, was known to aſtronomers, there was nothing more eaſy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the ſituation of places was determined, according as they lay on one ſide of the equator or the other. The ſame may be obſerved of the other circles of the ſphere above mentioned. The reader having obtained an idea of the principle upon which the Doctrine of the Globe is founded, may proceed to conſider the doctrine itſelf, or, in other words, the deſcription of our earth, as repreſented by the *artificial globe*.

FIGURE OF THE EARTH.] Though, in ſpeaking of the earth along with the other planets, it was ſufficient to conſider it as a ſpherical or globular body,—yet it has been diſcovered, that this is not its true figure, and that the earth, though nearly a ſphere or ball, is not perfectly ſo. This matter occaſioned great diſpute between the philoſophers of the laſt age, among whom ſir Iſaac Newton, and Caſſini, a French aſtronomer, were the heads of two different parties. Sir Iſaac demonſtrated, from mathematical principles, that the earth was an *oblate ſphere*, or that it was flatted at the poles, or north and ſouth points, and jutted out towards the equator, ſo that a line, drawn through the centre of the earth, and paſſing through the poles, which is called a diameter, would not be ſo long as a line drawn through the ſame centre and paſſing through the eaſt and weſt points. The French philoſopher aſſerted quite the contrary. But the matter was put to a trial by the French king in 1736, who ſent out a company of philoſophers towards the north pole, and likewiſe towards the equator, in order to meaſure a degree, or the three hundred and ſixtieth

part

part of a great circle, in thoſe different parts; and from their report, the opinion of ſir Iſaac Newton was confirmed beyond diſpute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been conſidered as more flat towards the poles than towards the equator. The reaſon of this figure may be eaſily underſtood, if the reader fully comprehends what we formerly obſerved, with regard to the earth's motion. For if we fix a ball of ſoft clay on a ſpindle, and whirl it round, we ſhall find that it will jut out or project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. Now this is exactly the caſe with regard to our earth; only that its axis, repreſented by the ſpindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not properly ſpherical, the difference from that figure is ſo ſmall, that it may be repreſented by a globe or ball, without any ſenſible error.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.] In the general table which we have exhibited, page 3, the diameter of the globe is given according to the beſt obſervations; ſo that its circumference is 25,038 Engliſh miles. This circumference is conceived, for the conveniency of meaſuring, to be divided into thee hundred and ſixty parts or degrees, each degree containing ſixty geographical miles, or ſixty-nine Engliſh miles and a half. Theſe degrees are in the ſame manner conceived to be divided each into ſixty minutes.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.] The axis of the earth is that imaginary line paſſing through its centre, on which it is ſuppoſed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the earth; one in the north and the other in the ſouth, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles. The knowledge of theſe poles is of great uſe to the geographer in determining the diſtance and ſituation of places; for the poles mark, as it were, the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator: ſo that the nearer one approaches to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator; and contrariwiſe, in removing from the poles, you approach the equator.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.] Theſe are commonly divided into the *greater* and *leſſer*. A great circle is that whoſe plane paſſes through the centre of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemiſpheres. A leſſer circle is that which, being parallel to a greater, cannot paſs through the centre of the earth, nor divide it into two equal parts. The greater circles are *ſix* in number, the leſſer only *four*.

EQUATOR.] The firſt *great circle* we ſhall ſpeak of is the *Equator*, which we have had occaſion to hint at already. It is called ſometimes the *Equinoctial*, the reaſon of which we have explained; and by navigators it is alſo called the *Line*, becauſe, according to their rude notions, they believed it to be a great Line drawn upon the ſea from eaſt to weſt, dividing the earth into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres, and which they were actually to paſs in ſailing from one into the other. The poles of this circle are the ſame with thoſe of the world. It paſſes through the eaſt and weſt points of the world, and, as has been already mentioned, divides it into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, the uſe of which will ſoon appear.

HORIZON.] This *great circle* is repreſented by a broad circular piece of wood encompaſſing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemiſpheres. Geographers very properly diſtinguiſh the horizon into

the *ſenſible* and *rational*. The firſt is that which bounds the utmoſt proſpect of our ſight, when we view the heavens around us, *apparently* touching the earth or ſea.

This circle determines the riſing or ſetting of the ſun and ſtars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eaſtern edge, we ſay they riſe; and when they go beneath the weſtern, we ſay they are ſet. It appears that each place has its own *ſenſible* horizon. The other horizon, called the *rational*, encompaſſes the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is, two points in its axis, each ninety degrees diſtant from its plane, as thoſe of all circles are) are called the *Zenith* and *Nadir*,—the former exactly above our heads, and the latter directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle which repreſents it on the globe, has ſeveral circles drawn upon it: of theſe the innermoſt is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve ſigns of the Zodiac (of which hereafter), viz. thirty to each ſign. Next to this, you have the names of theſe ſigns, together with the days of the month according to the old ſtyle, and then according to the new ſtyle. Beſides theſe, there is a circle repreſenting the thirty-two rhumbs, or points of the mariner's compaſs. The uſe of all theſe will be explained hereafter.

MERIDIAN.] *This circle* is repreſented by the *braſs ring* on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; ſo that, counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the eaſtern and weſtern hemiſpheres. This circle is called the *meridian*, becauſe when the ſun comes to the ſouth part of it, it is then *meridies* or mid-day, and then the ſun has its greateſt altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now as the ſun is never in its meridian altitude at two places eaſt or weſt of one another at the ſame time, each of theſe places muſt have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

ZODIAC.] The zodiac is a *broad circle*, which cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve ſigns above mentioned are repreſented. In the middle of this circle is ſuppoſed another called the *Ecliptic*, from which the ſun never deviates in his annual courſe, and in which he advances thirty degrees every month. The twelve ſigns are,

1. Aries	♈	- -	March	7. Libra	♎	-	September
2. Taurus	♉	- -	April	8. Scorpio	♏	-	October
3. Gemini	♊	- -	May	9. Sagittarius	♐	-	November
4. Cancer	♋	- -	June	10. Capricorn	♑	-	December
5. Leo	♌	- -	July	11. Aquarius	♒	-	January
6. Virgo	♍	- -	Auguſt	12. Piſces	♓	-	February

COLURES.] If you imagine *two great circles* paſſing both through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, and the other through the ſolſtitial points Cancer and Capricorn, theſe are called the Colures,—the one the Equinoctial, the other the Solſtitial Colure. Theſe divide the ecliptic into four equal parts or quarters, which are denominated according to the points which theſe paſs through, viz. the four cardinal points, and are the firſt points of Aries, Libra, Cancer, and Capricorn: and theſe are all the *great circles*.

TROPICS.] If you ſuppoſe two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, at twenty-three degrees thirty minutes diſtance from it, meaſured

ſured on the brazen meridian, the one towards the north, the other towards the ſouth, theſe are called Tropics, becauſe the ſun appears, when in them, to turn backwards from his former courſe. The one is called the Tropic of Cancer, the other of Capricorn, becauſe they paſs through theſe points.

POLAR CIRCLES.] If two other circles are ſuppoſed to be drawn at the like diſtance of twenty-three degrees, thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points, theſe are called the Polar Circles. The *northern* is called the *Arctic*, becauſe the north pole is near the conſtellation of the Bear; the *ſouthern*, the *Antarctic*, becauſe oppoſite to the former. And theſe are the *four leſſer circles*. Beſides theſe ten circles now deſcribed, which are always drawn on the globe, there are ſeveral others which are only ſuppoſed to be drawn on it. Theſe will be explained as they become neceſſary, leſt the reader ſhould be diſguſted with too many definitions at the ſame time, without ſeeing the purpoſe for which they ſerve. The main deſign then of all theſe circles being to exhibit the reſpective ſituation of places on the earth, we ſhall proceed to conſider more particularly how that is effected by them. It was found eaſier to diſtinguiſh places by the quarters of the earth in which they lay, than by their diſtance from any one point. Thus, after it was diſcovered that the equator divided the earth into two parts, called the Northern and Southern hemiſpheres, it was eaſy to ſee that all places on the globe might be diſtinguiſhed, according as they lay on the north or ſouth ſide of the equator.

ZONES.] After the four leſſer circles we have mentioned came to be known, it was found that the earth, by means of them, might be divided into five portions, and conſequently that the places on its ſurface might be diſtinguiſhed according as they lay in one or other of theſe portions, which are called Zones, from the Greek word ζωνη, which ſignifies a girdle; being broad ſpaces, like ſwathes, girding the earth about.

The *torrid zone* is that portion of the earth between the tropics, and called by the ancients *torrid*, becauſe they conceived, that, being continually expoſed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the ſun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and ſandy deſerts. This notion, however, has long ſince been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almoſt throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but ſo fruitful, that in many places they have two harveſts in a year; all ſorts of ſpices and drugs are almoſt ſolely produced there; and it furniſhes more perfect metals, precious ſtones, and pearls, than all the reſt of the earth together. In ſhort, the countries of Africa, Aſia, and America, which lie under this zone, are in all reſpects the moſt fertile and luxuriant upon earth.

The two *temperate zones* are compriſed between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, becauſe, meeting the rays of the ſun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat.

The two *frigid zones* lie between the polar circles and the poles, or rather are incloſed within the polar circles. They are called the Frigid or Frozen, becauſe moſt part of the year it is extremely cold there, and every thing is frozen ſo long as the ſun is under the horizon, or but a little above it. However, theſe zones are not quite uninhabitable, though much leſs fit for living in than the torrid.

None of all theſe zones are thoroughly diſcovered by the Europeans. Our knowledge of the ſouthern temperate zone is very ſcanty; we know little of the northern frigid zone; and ſtill leſs of the ſouthern frigid zone. The northern temperate and torrid zones are thoſe we are beſt acquainted with.

CLIMATES.] But the diviſion of the earth into hemiſpheres and zones, though it may be of advantage in letting us know in what quarter of the earth any place lies, is not ſufficiently minute for giving us a notion of the diſtances between one place and another. This however is ſtill more neceſſary, becauſe it is of more importance to mankind to know the ſituations of places with regard to each other, than with regard to the earth itſelf. The firſt ſtep taken for determining this matter was to divide the earth into what are called Climates. It was obſerved, that the day was always twelve hours long on the equator, and that the longeſt day increaſed in proportion as we advanced north or ſouth on either ſide of it. The ancients therefore determined how far any place was north or ſouth of the equator, or what is called the *Latitude* of the place, from the greateſt length of the day from that place. This made them conceive a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different diſtances from the equator. And as they called the ſpaces contained between theſe circles, Climates, becauſe they declined from the equator towards the pole, ſo the circles themſelves may be called *Climatical Parallels*. This, therefore, was a new diviſion of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and ſtill continues in uſe; though, as we ſhall ſhow, the deſign which firſt introduced it may be better anſwered in another way. There are 30 climates between the equator and either pole. In the firſt 24, the days increaſe by half hours: but in the remaining ſix, between the polar circle and the pole, the days increaſe by months. This the reader will be convinced of, when he becomes acquainted with the uſe of the globe: in the mean time, we ſhall inſert a table, which will ſerve to ſhow in what climate any country lies, ſuppoſing the length of the day, and the diſtance of the place from the equator, to be known.

Cli.	Latitude. D.	M.	Breadth. D.	M.	Long. Da. H.	M.	Names of Countries and remarkable Places, ſituated in every Climate North of the Equator.
1	8	25	8	25	12	30	I. Within the firſt Climate lie the Gold and Silver Coaſts in Africa; Malacca in the Eaſt-Indies; Cayenne and Surinam in Terra Firma, S. America.
2	16	25	8	0	13	0	II. Here lie Abyſſinia in Africa; Siam, Madras, and Pondicherry in the Eaſt-Indies; Straits of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tobago, the Granades, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes in the W. Indies.
3	23	50	7	25	13	30	III. Contains Mecca in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal, in the Eaſt-Indies; Canton in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in North America; Jamaica, Hiſpaniola, St. Chriſtopher's, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadaloupe, in the Weſt-Indies.
4	30	20	6	30	14	0	IV. Egypt, and the Canary Iſlands, in Africa; Delhi, capital of the Mogul Empire in Aſia; Gulf of Mexico, and Eaſt Florida in North America; the Havannah, in the Weſt Indies.
5	36	28	6	8	14	30	V. Gibraltar, in Spain, part of the Mediterranean ſea; the Barbary coaſt, in Africa; Jeruſalem, Iſpahan, capital of Perſia; Nankin in China; California, New Mexico, Weſt Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America.
6	41	22	4	54	15	0	VI. Liſbon, in Portugal; Madrid in Spain; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Aſia Minor; part of the Caſpian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Pekin, in China; Corea, and Japan; Williamſburgh, in Virginia; Maryland, and Philadelphia, in N. America.
7	45	29	4	7	15	30	VII. Northern provinces of Spain; ſouthern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Conſtantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caſpian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Boſton, in New England, North America.
8	49	1	3	32	16	0	VIII. Paris, Vienna, capital of Germany; Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Canada, in N. America.
9	52	0	2	59	16	30	IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dreſden; Cracow, in Poland; ſouthern provinces of Ruſſia; part of Tartary; north part of Newfoundland.
10	54	27	2	27	17	0	X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, and Tartary; Warſaw, in Poland; Labrador; and New South-Wales, in North America.
11	56	37	2	10	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moſcow, cap. of Ruſſia.
12	58	29	1	52	18		XII. South part of Sweden; Tobolſki, cap. of Siberia
13	59	58	1	29	18	30	XIII. Orkney Iſles; Stockholm, capital of Sweden.
14	61	18	1	20	19		XIV. Bergen in Norway; Peterſburgh, in Ruſſia.
15	62	25	1	7	19	30	XV. Hudſon's Straits, North America.
16	63	22		57	20		XVI. Siberia, and the ſouth part of Weſt Greenland.
17	64	6		44	20	30	XVII. Drontheim, in Norway.
18	64	49		43	21		XVIII. Part of Finland, in Ruſſia.
19	65	21		32	21	30	XIX. Archangel, on the White Sea, Ruſſia.
20	65	47		26	22		XX. Hecla, in Iceland.
21	66	6		19	22	30	XXI. Northern Parts of Ruſſia and Siberia.
22	66	20		14	23		XXII. New North Wales in North America.
23	66	28		8	23	30	XXIII. Davis's Straits, in ditto.
24	66	31		3	24		XXIV. Samoieda.
				1 Month.			
25	67	21					XXV. South part of Lapland.
26	69	48		2 Months.			XXVI. Weſt Greenland.
27	73	37		3 Months.			XXVII. Zembla Auſtralis.
28	78	30		4 Months.			XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.
29	84	5		5 Months.			XXIX. Spitſbergen or Eaſt Greenland.
30	90	0		6 Months.			XXX. Unknown.

LATITUDE.] The distance of places from the equator, or what is called their *Latitude*, is easily measured on the globe, by means of the meridian above described. For we have only to bring the place, whose latitude we would know, to the meridian, where the degree of latitude is marked; and it will be exactly over the place. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, it is either northern or southern; and the nearer the poles, the greater the latitude; and no place can have more than 90 degrees of latitude, because the poles, where the reckoning of the latitude terminates, are at that distance from the equator.

PARALLELS OF LATITUDE.] Through every degree of latitude, or, more properly, through every particular place on the earth, geographers suppose a circle to be drawn, which they call a parallel of latitude. The intersection of this circle with the meridian of any place shows the true situation of that place.

LONGITUDE.] The *Longitude* of a place is its situation with regard to the first meridian, and consequently reckoned towards the east or west: in reckoning the longitude there is no particular spot from which we ought to set out preferably to another; but, for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the most westerly of the Canary islands, was formerly considered as the first meridian in most of the globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be so many degrees east or west of the meridian of Ferro. The modern globes fix the first meridian, from which the degrees of longitude are reckoned, in the capital city of the different countries where they are made, viz. the English globes date the first meridian from London or Greenwich, the French globes from Paris, &c. The degrees of longitude are marked on the equator. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, because, the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be remote from another above half that distance; but many foreign geographers very improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal, like those of latitude, but diminish in proportion as the meridians incline, or their distance contracts in approaching the pole. Hence, in 60 degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and so of the rest. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, are set down in the table in the following page.

LONGITUDE AND LATITUDE FOUND.] To find the longitude and latitude of any place, therefore, we need only bring that place to the brazen meridian, and we shall find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that to find the difference between the latitude or longitude of two places, we have only to compare the degrees of either, thus found, with one another, and the reduction of these degrees into miles, according to the table given below; and, remembering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to 60 geographic miles, or $69\frac{1}{2}$ English, we shall be able exactly to determine the distance between any places on the globe.

DISTANCE OF PLACES MEASURED.] The distance of places which lie in an oblique direction, i. e. neither directly south, north, east, nor west, from one another, may be measured in a readier way, by extending the compasses from the one to the other, and then applying them to the equator. For instance, extend the compasses from Guinea in Africa, to Brazil in America, and then apply them to the equator, and you will find the distance to be 25 degrees, which, at 60 miles to a degree, makes the distance 1500 miles.

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.] In order to ſupply the place of the compaſſes in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of braſs ſcrewed on the brazen meridian, which contains 90 degrees, or one quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the diſtances and bearings of places are meaſured without the trouble of firſt extending the compaſſes between them, and then applying the ſame to the equator. This plate is called the Quadrant of Altitude.

HOUR CIRCLE.] This is a ſmall braſs circle fixed on the brazen meridian, divided into twenty-four hours, and having an index movable round the axis of the globe.

A TABLE,
SHOWING
The Number of Miles contained in a Degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.
1	59	96	31	51	43	61	29	04
2	59	94	32	50	88	62	28	17
3	59	92	33	50	32	63	27	24
4	59	86	34	49	74	64	26	30
5	59	77	35	49	15	65	25	36
6	59	67	36	48	54	66	24	41
7	59	56	37	47	92	67	23	45
8	59	40	38	47	28	68	22	48
9	59	20	39	46	62	69	21	51
10	59	08	40	46	00	70	20	52
11	58	89	41	45	28	71	19	54
12	58	68	42	44	95	72	18	55
13	58	46	43	43	88	73	17	54
14	58	22	44	43	16	74	16	53
15	58	00	45	42	43	75	15	52
16	57	60	46	41	68	76	14	51
17	57	30	47	41	00	77	13	50
18	57	04	48	40	15	78	12	48
19	56	73	49	39	36	79	11	45
20	56	38	50	38	57	80	10	42
21	56	00	51	37	73	81	09	38
22	55	63	52	37	00	82	08	35
32	55	23	53	36	18	83	07	32
24	54	81	54	35	26	84	06	28
25	54	38	55	34	41	85	05	23
26	54	00	56	33	55	86	04	18
27	53	44	57	32	67	87	03	14
28	53	00	58	31	79	88	02	09
29	52	48	59	30	90	89	01	05
30	51	96	60	30	00	90	00	00

PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROBLEM 1. *The Diameter of an artificial Globe being given, to find its Surface in ſquare, and its Solidity in cubic Meaſure.*

MULTIPLY the diameter by the circumference, which is a great circle dividing the globe into two equal parts, and the product will give the firſt: then multiply the ſaid product by one ſixth of the diameter, and the product of that will give the ſecond. After the ſame manner we may find the ſurface and ſolidity of the natural globe, as alſo the whole body of the atmoſphere ſurrounding the ſame, provided it be always and every where of the ſame height; for having found the perpendicular height thereof by the common experiment of the aſcent of mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, then double the ſaid height, and add the ſame to the diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole, as a new diameter, by its proper circumference. and from the product ſubtract the ſolidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmoſphere.

PROB. 2. *To rectify the Globe.*

The globe being ſet upon a true plane, raiſe the pole according to the given latitude; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and if there be any mariner's compaſs upon the pedeſtal, let the globe be ſo ſituated, as that the brazen meridian may ſtand due ſouth and north, according to the two extremities of the needle, allowing for its variation.

PROB. 3. *To find the Longitude and Latitude of any Place.*

For this, ſee page 17.

PROB. 4. *The Longitude and Latitude of any Place being given, to find that Place on the Globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; reckon upon the ſame meridian the degree of latitude, whether ſouth or north, and make a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends; the point exactly under the chalk is the place deſired.

PROB. 5. *The Latitude of any Place being given, to find all thoſe Places that have the ſame Latitude.*

The globe being rectified *(a)* according to the latitude of the given place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the ſame, and turning the globe round, all thoſe places paſſing under the ſaid mark have the ſame latitude with the given place.

(a) PROB. 2.

PROB. 6. *To find the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic at any Time.*

The month and day being given, look for the ſame upon the wooden horizon; and over-againſt the day you will find the particular ſign and degree in which the Sun is at that time; which ſign and degree being noted in the ecliptic, the ſame is the Sun's place, or nearly, at the time deſired.

PROB. 7. *The Month and Day being given, as alſo the particular Time of that Day, to find thoſe Places of the Globe to which the Sun is in the Meridian at that particular Time.*

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the place where you are, bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian, and ſetting the index of

the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, or where you are, turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII. which done, fix the globe in that ſituation, and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper hemiſphere of the brazen meridian, for thoſe are the places deſired.

PROB. 8. *To know the Length of the Day and Night in any Place of the Earth at any Time.*

Elevate the pole *(a)* according to the latitude of the given place; find the ſun's place in the ecliptic *(b)* at that time, which being brought to the eaſt ſide of the horizon, ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure XII. and turning the globe about till the aforeſaid place of the ecliptic touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, look upon the horary circle, and wherefoever the index pointeth, reckon the number of hours between the ſame and the upper figure of XII. for that is the length of the day, the complement whereof to 24 hours is the length of the night.

(a) PROB. 2.
(b) PROB. 6.

PROB. 9. *To know by the Globe, what o'Clock it is in any Part of the World at any Time, provided you know the Hour of the Day where you are at the ſame Time.*

Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian, the pole being raiſed *(c)* according to the latitude thereof, and ſet the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day at that time. Then bring the deſired place to the brazen meridian, and the index will point out the preſent hour at that place, wherever it is.

(c) PROB. 3.

PROB. 10. *A Place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find thoſe two Days of the Year in which the Sun ſhall be vertical to the ſame.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and mark what degree of latitude is exactly above it. Move the globe round, and obſerve the two points of the ecliptic that paſs through the ſaid degree of latitude. Search upon the wooden horizon (or by proper tables of the ſun's annual motion) on what days he paſſes through the aforeſaid points of the ecliptic, for thoſe are the days required, in which the ſun is vertical to the given place.

PROB. 11. *The Month and the Day being given, to find by the Globe thoſe Places of the North Frigid Zone, where the Sun begins then to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting; as alſo thoſe Places of the South Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally abſent.*

The day given (which muſt always be one of thoſe either between the vernal equinox and the ſummer ſolſtice, or between the autumnal equinox and the winter ſolſtice), find *(d)* the ſun's place in the ecliptic, and marking the ſame, bring it to the brazen meridian, and reckon the like number of degrees from the north pole towards the equator, as there is between the equator and the ſun's place in the ecliptic, ſetting a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends. This done, turn the globe round, and all the places paſſing under the ſaid chalk are thoſe in which the ſun begins to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting, upon the given day. For ſolution of the latter part of the problem, ſet off the ſame diſtance from the ſouth pole upon the brazen meridian towards the equator, as was formerly ſet off from the north; then marking with chalk, and turning the globe round, all places paſſing under the mark are thoſe where the ſun begins his total diſappearance from the given day.

(d) PROB. 6.

PROB. 12. *A Place being given in the North Frigid Zone, to find by the Globe what Number of Days the Sun conſtantly ſhines upon the ſaid Place, and what Day he is abſent, as alſo the firſt and laſt Day of his Appearance.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and obſerving its latitude *(a)*, elevate the globe accordingly; count the ſame number of degrees upon the meridian from each ſide of the equator as the place is diſtant from the pole; and making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and carefully obſerve what two degrees of the ecliptic paſs exactly under the two points marked on the meridian; firſt for the northern arch of the circle, namely, that comprehended between the two degrees marked, being reduced to time, will give the number of days that the ſun doth conſtantly ſhine above the horizon of the given place: and the oppoſite arch of the ſaid circle will in like manner give the number of days in which he is totally abſent, and alſo will point out which days thoſe are. And in the interval he will riſe and ſet.

(a) PROB. 2.

PROB. 13. *The Month and Day being given, to find thoſe Places on the Globe, to which the Sun, when in the Meridian, ſhall be vertical on that Day.*

The ſun's place in the ecliptic being *(b)* found, bring the ſame to the brazen meridian, on which make a ſmall mark with chalk exactly above the ſun's place. Which done, turn the globe, and thoſe places which have the ſun vertical in the meridian, will ſucceſſively paſs under the ſaid mark.

(b) PROB. 6.

PROB. 14. *The Month and Day being given, to find upon what Point of the Compaſs the Sun then riſes and ſets in any Place.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the deſired place, and, finding the ſun's place in the ecliptic at the given time, bring the ſame to the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, and you may there clearly ſee the point of the compaſs upon which he then riſes. By turning the globe about till his place coincide with the weſtern ſide of the horizon, you may alſo ſee upon that circle the exact point of his ſetting.

PROB. 15. *To know by the Globe the Length of the longeſt and ſhorteſt Days and Nights in any Part of the World.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and bring the firſt degree of Cancer, if in the northern, or Capricorn, if in the ſouthern hemiſphere, to the eaſt ſide of the horizon; and ſetting the index of the horary circle at noon, turn the globe about till the ſign of Cancer touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, and then obſerve upon the horary circle the number of hours between the index and the upper figure of XII. reckoning them according to the motion of the index, for that is the length of the longeſt day, the complement whereof to 24 hours is the extent of the ſhorteſt night. As for the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night, they are only the reverſe of the former.

PROB. 16. *The Hour of the Day being given in any Place, to find thoſe Places of the Earth where it is either Noon or Midnight, or any other particular Hour, at the ſame Time.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn about the globe till the index point at the upper figure of XII. and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, for

in them it is mid-day at the time given. Which done, turn the globe about till the index point at the lower figure of XII. and whatever places are then in the lower ſemicircle of the meridian, in them it is midnight at the given time. After the ſame manner we may find thoſe places that have any other particular hour at the time given, by moving the globe till the index point at the hour deſired, and obſerving the places that are then under the brazen meridian.

PROB. 17. *The Day and Hour being given, to find by the Globe that particular Place of the Earth to which the Sun is vertical at that very Time.*

The ſun's place in the ecliptic *(a)* being found, and brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the ſame with chalk; then *(b)* find thoſe places of the earth in whoſe meridian the ſun is at that inſtant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, obſerve narrowly that individual part of the earth which falls exactly under the aforeſaid mark in the brazen meridian; for that is the particular place to which the ſun is vertical at that very time.

(a) PROB. 6.
(b) PROB. 16.

PROB. 18. *The Day and Hour at any Place being given, to find all thoſe Places where the Sun is then riſing, or ſetting, or in the Meridian; conſequently all thoſe Places which are enlightened at that Time, and thoſe which are in the dark.*

This problem cannot be ſolved by any globe fitted up in the common way, with the hour-circle fixed upon the braſs meridian, unleſs the ſun be on or near either of the tropics on the given day. But by a globe fitted up according to Mr. Joſeph Harris's invention, where the hour-circle lies on the ſurface of the globe below the meridian, it may be ſolved for any day in the year, according to his method, which is as follows:

Having found the place to which the ſun is vertical at the given hour, if the place be in the northern hemiſphere, elevate the north pole as many degrees above the horizon, as are equal to the latitude of that place: if the place be in the ſouthern hemiſphere, elevate the ſouth pole accordingly; and bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian. Then, all thoſe places which are in the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon have the ſun riſing to them at that time; and thoſe in the eaſtern ſemicircle have it ſetting; to thoſe under the upper ſemicircle of the braſs meridian, it is noon; and to thoſe under the lower ſemicircle, it is midnight. All thoſe places which are above the horizon, are enlightened by the ſun, and have the ſun juſt as many degrees above them as they themſelves are above the horizon; and this height may be known, by fixing the quadrant of altitude on the brazen meridian over the place to which the ſun is vertical; and then laying it over any other place, obſerve what number of degrees on the quadrant are intercepted between the ſaid place and the horizon. In all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the morning twilight is juſt beginning; in all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the ſemicircle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending; and all thoſe places that are lower than 18 degrees, have dark night.

If any place be brought to the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, and the hour index be ſet to the upper XII. or noon, and then the globe be turned round eaſtward on its axis,—when the place comes to the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhow the time of ſun-riſing

at

at that place; and when the ſame place comes to the eaſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhow the time of the ſun's ſetting.

To thoſe places which do not go under the horizon, the ſun ſets not on that day: and to thoſe which do not come above it, the ſun does not riſe.

PROB. 19. *The Month and Day being given, with the Place of the Moon in the Zodiac, and her true Latitude, to find thereby the exact Hour when ſhe ſhall riſe and ſet, together with her ſouthing, or coming to the Meridian of the Place.*

The moon's place in the zodiac may be found readily enough at any time by an ordinary almanack; and her latitude, which is her diſtance from the ecliptic, by applying the ſemicircle of poſition to her place in the zodiac. For the ſolution of the problem, elevate the pole *(a)* according to the latitude of the given place; and the ſun's place in the ecliptic at the time being *(b)* found, and marked with chalk, as alſo the moon's place at the ſame time, bring the ſun's place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at noon; then turn the globe till the moon's place ſucceſſively meet with the eaſtern and weſtern ſide of the horizon, as alſo the brazen meridian; and the index will point at thoſe various times the particular hours of her riſing, ſetting, and ſouthing.

(a) PROB. 2.

(b) PROB. 6.

PROB. 20. *Two Places being given on the Globe, to find the true Diſtance between them.*

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will be their true diſtance from each other, reckoning every degree to be $69\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh miles.

PROB. 21. *A Place being given on the Globe, and its true Diſtance from a ſecond Place, to find thereby all other Places of the Earth that are at the ſame Diſtance from the given Place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and elevate the pole according to the latitude of the ſaid place; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and reckon upon the ſaid quadrant the given diſtance between the firſt and ſecond place, provided the ſame be under 90 degrees; otherwiſe you muſt uſe the ſemicircle of poſition, and making a mark where the reckoning ends, and moving the ſaid quadrant or ſemicircle quite round upon the ſurface of the globe, all places paſſing under that mark are thoſe deſired.

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. The latitude of any place is equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon of that place, and the elevation of the equator is equal to the complement of the latitude, that is, to what the latitude wants of 90 degrees.

2. Thoſe places which lie on the equator have no latitude, it being there that the latitude begins; and thoſe places which lie on the firſt meridian have no longitude, it being there that the longitude begins. Conſequently, *that* particular place of the earth where the firſt meridian interſects the equator, has neither longitude nor latitude.

3. All places of the earth do equally enjoy the benefit of the ſun, in reſpect of time, and are equally deprived of it.

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, 12 hours each at all times of the year. For although the ſun declines alternately, from the equator towards the north and towards the ſouth, yet, as the horizon of the equator cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the ſun muſt always continue above the horizon for one half a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. 12 hours each, when the ſun is in the equinoctial: for, in all the elevations of the pole, ſhort of 90 degrees (which is the greateſt), one half of the equator or equinoctial will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6. The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, but when the ſun enters the ſigns ♈ Aries and ♎ Libra. For in every other part of the ecliptic, the circle of the ſun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon,

7. The nearer any place is to the equator, the leſs is the difference between the length of the days and nights in that place; and the more remote, the contrary;—the circles which the ſun deſcribes in the heavens every 24 hours, being cut more nearly equal in the former caſe, and more unequal in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or ſhort the day and night be at any one of thoſe places at any time of the year, it is then of the ſame length at all the reſt; for in turning the globe round its axis (when rectified according to the ſun's declination), all thoſe places will keep equally long above and below the horizon.

9. The ſun is vertical twice a year to every place between the tropics; to thoſe under the tropics, once a year, but never any where elſe. For there can be no place between the tropics, but that there will be two points in the ecliptic, whoſe declination from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; and there is but one point of the ecliptic, which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches; and as the ſun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places lying exactly under the polar circles, the ſun, when he is in the nearer tropic, continues 24 hours above the horizon without ſetting; becauſe no part of that tropic is below their horizon. And when the ſun is in the farther tropic, he is for the ſame length of time without riſing; becauſe no part of that tropic is above their horizon. But at all other times of the year, he riſes and ſets there, as in other places; becauſe all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or leſs cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon; and when the ſun is not in either of the tropics, his diurnal courſe muſt be in one or other of thoſe circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemiſphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longeſt day and ſhorteſt night is when the ſun is in the northern tropic; and the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night is when the ſun is in the ſouthern topic; becauſe no circle of the ſun's daily motion is ſo much above the horizon, and ſo little below it, as the northern topic; and none ſo little above it, and ſo much below it, as the ſouthern. In the ſouthern hemiſphere, the contrary takes place.

12. In

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the ſun appears for ſome number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without ſetting, and at the oppoſite time of the year, without riſing; becauſe ſome part of the ecliptic never ſets in the former caſe, and as much of the oppoſite part never riſes in the latter. And the nearer unto, or the more remote from the pole theſe places are, the longer or ſhorter is the ſun's continuing preſence or abſence.

13. If a ſhip ſets out from any port, and ſails round the earth eaſtward to the ſame port again, let her take what time ſhe will to do it in, the people in that ſhip, in reckoning their time, will gain one complete day at their return, or count one day more than thoſe who reſide at the ſame port; becauſe, by going contrary to the ſun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get ſo much the ſooner above the ſetting ſun, than if they had kept for a whole day at any particular place. And thus, by cutting off from the length of every day a part proportionable to their own motion, they will gain a complete day of that ſort at their return, without gaining one moment of abſolute time more than is elapſed, during their courſe, to the people at the port. If they ſail weſtward, they will reckon one day leſs than the people do who reſide at the ſame port; becauſe, by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the ſun, they will keep him each particular day ſo much longer above the horizon, as anſwers to that day's courſe; and thereby they cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without loſing one moment of abſolute time.

Hence, if two ſhips ſhould ſet out at the ſame time from any port, and ſail round the globe, one eaſtward and the other weſtward, ſo as to meet at the ſame port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning their time, at their return. If they ſailed twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then ſix, &c.

OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

THE conſtituent parts of the Earth are two, the *land* and *water*. The parts of the land are continents, iſlands, peninſulas, iſthmuſes, promontories, capes, coaſts, mountains, &c. This land is divided into two great continents (beſides the iſlands), viz. the *eaſtern* and *weſtern* continent. The eaſtern is ſubdivided into three parts, viz. Europe, on the north-weſt; Aſia, on the north-eaſt; and Africa (which is joined to Aſia by the iſthmus of Suez, 60 miles over) on the ſouth. The weſtern continent conſiſts of North and South America, joined by the iſthmus of Darien, 60 or 70 miles broad.

A *continent* is a large portion of land, containing ſeveral countries or kingdoms, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by water, as Europe. An *iſland* is a ſmaller part of land, quite ſurrounded by water, as Great Britain. A *peninſula* is a tract of land every where ſurrounded by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent; as the Morea in Greece; and that neck of land which ſo joins it, is called an *iſthmus*; as the iſthmus of Suez, which joins Africa to Aſia, and the iſthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America. A *promontory* is a hill, or point of land, ſtretching itſelf into the ſea, the end of which is called a *cape*; as the Cape of Good Hope. A *coaſt* or *ſhore* is that part of a country which borders on the ſea-ſide. Mountains, vallies, woods, deſerts, plains, &c. need no deſcription. The moſt remarkable are taken notice of, and deſcribed, in the body of this work.

The

The parts of the water are oceans, ſeas, lakes, ſtraits, gulfs, bays, or creeks, rivers, &c. The waters are divided into three extenſive oceans (beſides leſſer ſeas, which are only branches of theſe), viz. the *Atlantic*, the *Pacific* and the *Indian* Ocean. The Atlantic, or Weſtern Ocean, divides the eaſtern and weſtern continents, and is 3000 miles wide. The Pacific divides America from Aſia, and is 10,000 miles over. The Indian Ocean lies between the Eaſt Indies and Africa, being 3000 miles wide.

The *ocean* is a great and ſpacious collection of water, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by land; as the Atlantic Ocean. A *ſea* is a ſmaller collection of water, which communicates with the ocean, confined by the land; as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A *lake* is a large collection of water, entirely ſurrounded by land; as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. A *ſtrait* is a narrow part of the ſea, confined or lying between two ſhores, and opening a paſſage out of one ſea into another; as the ſtrait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is ſometimes called a *ſound*; as the ſtrait into the Baltic. A *gulf* is a part of the ſea running up into the land, and ſurrounded by it, except at the paſſage whereby it communicates with the ſea or ocean. If a gulf be very large, it is called an inland ſea; as the Mediterranean; if it do not go far into the land, it is called a *bay*, as the Bay of Biſcay; if it be very ſmall, a *creek*, *haven*, *ſtation*, or *road* for ſhips, as Milford Haven. Rivers, canals, brooks, &c. need no deſcription; for theſe leſſer diviſions of water, like thoſe of land, are to be met with in moſt countries, and every one has a clear idea of what is meant by them. But in order to ſtrengthen the remembrance of the great parts of the land and water we have deſcribed, it may be proper to obſerve that there is a ſtrong analogy or reſemblance between them. The deſcription of a continent reſembles that of an ocean; an iſland encompaſſed with water reſembles a lake encompaſſed with land. A peninſula of land is like a gulf or inland ſea. A promontory or cape of land is like a bay or creek of the ſea; and an iſthmus, whereby two lands are joined, reſembles a ſtrait, which unites one ſea to another.

To this deſcription of the diviſions of the earth, rather than add an enumeration of the various parts of land and water which correſpond to them, and which the reader will find in the body of the work, we ſhall ſubjoin a table, exhibiting the ſuperficial contents of the whole globe in ſquare miles, ſixty to a degree, and alſo of the ſeas and unknown parts, the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewiſe of the great empires and principal iſlands, which ſhall be placed as they are ſubordinate to one another in magnitude.

The

	Square Miles.
The Globe — — —	148,510,627
Seas and unknown Parts —	117,843,821
The Habitable World * —	30,666,806
Europe — —	2,749,349
Aſia — — —	10,257,487
Africa — — —	8,506,208
America — —	9,153,762
Perſian Empire under Darius	1,650,000
Rom. Em. in its utmoſt height	1,610,000
Ruſſian —	3,376,485
Chineſe — —	1,749,000
Great Mogul — —	1,116,000
Turkiſh — —	960,057
Britiſh, excluſive of Settlements in Africa and Gibraltar	809,996
Preſent Perſian — —	800,000

ISLANDS.

Borneo — — —	238,000
Madagaſcar — — —	168,000
Sumatra — — —	129,000
Japan — — —	118,000
Great Britain — — —	72,926
Celebes — — —	68,400
Manilla — — —	58,500
Iceland — — —	46,000
Terra del Fuego — —	42,075
Mindanao — — —	39,200

Iſlands.	Square Miles.
Cuba — —	38,400
Java — —	38,250
Hiſpaniola -	36,000
Newfoundl.	35,500
Ceylon —	27,730
Ireland —	27,457
Formoſa —	17,000
Anian —	11,900
Gilolo —	10,400
Sicily - —	9400
Timor —	7800
Sardinia —	6600
Cyprus —	6300
Jamaica —	6000
Flores - —	6000
Ceram —	5400
Breton —	4000
Socotra —	3600
Candia —	3220
Porto Rico -	3200
Corſica —	2520
Zealand —	1935
Majorca —	1400
St. Jago —	1400
Negropont-	1300
Teneriff —	1272
Gothland -	1000
Madeira —	950

Iſlands.	Sq. Mi.
St. Michael —	920
Sky — —	900
Lewis — —	880
Funen — —	768
Yvica — —	625
Minorca - —	520
Rhodes - —	480
Cephalonia —	420
Amboyna —	400
Orkn. Pomona	324
Scio — —	300
Martinico —	260
Lemnos - —	220
Corfu — —	194
Providence —	168
Man — —	160
Bornholm —	160
Wight - —	150
Malta - —	150
Barbadoes —	140
Zant - —	120
Antigua - —	100
St. Chriſtopher's	80
St. Helena —	80
Guernſey —	50
Jerſey - —	43
Bermudas —	40
Rhode - —	36

To theſe iſlands may be added the following, which have lately been diſcovered or more fully explored. The exact dimenſions of them are not aſcertained: but they may be arranged in the following order, according to their magnitude, beginning at the largeſt, which is ſuppoſed to be nearly equal in ſize to the whole continent of Europe;

New Holland,
New Guinea,
New Zealand,
New Caledonia,
New Hebrides,
Otaheite, or King George's Iſland,
Friendly Iſlands,
Marqueſas,
Eaſter, or Davis's Iſland.

* The number of inhabitants computed at preſent to be in the known world, at a medium, taken from the beſt calculations, are about 953 millions.

Europe contains -	153 Millions.
Aſia - - -	500
Africa - - -	150
America - -	150
Total	953

WINDS AND TIDES.] We cannot finiſh the doctrine of the earth, without conſidering the winds and tides, from which the changes that happen on its ſurface principally ariſe.

WINDS.] The earth on which we live is every where ſurrounded by a fine inviſible fluid, which extends to ſeveral miles above its ſurface, and is called *Air*. It is found by experiments, that a ſmall quantity of air is capable of being expanded, ſo as to fill a very large ſpace, or to be compreſſed into a much ſmaller compaſs than it occupied before. The general cauſe of the expanſion of the air is heat; the general cauſe of its compreſſion is cold. Hence if any part of the air or atmoſphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compreſſed. But when air is put in motion, we call it *wind* in general, and a breeze, gale, or ſtorm, according to the quickneſs or velocity of that motion. Winds, therefore, which are commonly

monly conſidered as things extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cauſe, and act with more or leſs uniformity in proportion as the action of this cauſe is more or leſs conſtant. It is found by obſervations made at ſea, that, from thirty degrees north latitude, to thirty degrees ſouth, there is a conſtant eaſt wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and called the *Trade Wind*. This is occaſioned by the action of the ſun, which, in moving from eaſt to weſt, heats and conſequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means a ſtream, or tide of air, always accompanies him in his courſe, and occaſions a perpetual eaſt wind within theſe limits. This general cauſe however is modified by a number of particulars, the explication of which would be too tedious and complicated for our preſent plan, which is to mention facts rather than theories.

The winds called the *Tropical Winds*, which blow from ſome particular point of the compaſs without much variation, are of three kinds: 1. The *General Trade Winds*, which extend to near thirty degrees of latitude on each ſide of the equator in the Atlantic, Ethiopic, and Pacific ſeas. 2. The *Monſoons*, or ſhifting trade-winds, which blow ſix months in one direction, and the other ſix months in the oppoſite direction. Theſe are moſtly in the Indian or Eaſtern Ocean, and do not extend above two hundred leagues from the land. Their change is at the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, and is accompanied with terrible ſtorms of thunder, lightning, and rain. 3. The *Sea* and *Land Breezes*, which are another kind of periodical winds, that blow from the land from midnight to midday, and from the ſea from about noon till midnight; theſe, however, do not extend above two or three leagues from ſhore. Near the coaſt of Guinea in Africa, the wind blows nearly always from the weſt, ſouth-weſt, or ſouth. On the coaſt of Peru in South America, the wind blows conſtantly from the ſouth-weſt. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and ſouth, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great Britain, are more variable, though they blow oftener from the weſt than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd and the eaſternmoſt of the Cape Verd iſlands, there is a tract of ſea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and ſuch rains, that this ſea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

It may be alſo uſeful to ſtudents in navigation and geography to obſerve farther, that the courſe or latitude our ſhips generally keep in their paſſage from England to America and the Weſt Indies, is,

To Boſton in New England, and Halifax in Nova Scotia, from 42 to 43 degrees.

To New York by the Azores or Weſtern Iſlands, 39 degrees.

To Carolina and Virginia by Madeira, which is called the upper courſe, 32 degrees; but the uſual courſe, to take advantage of the trade-winds, is from 16 to 23 degrees; and in this courſe they frequently touch at Antigua; it is this courſe our Weſt India ſhips ſail in.

The Spaniſh galleons and the flota from Spain keep from 15 to 18 degrees; and in their return to Spain about 37 degrees.

TIDES.] By the *tides* are meant that regular motion of the ſea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the tides remained in obſcurity, till the immortal ſir Iſaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. For having demonſtrated that there is a principle in all bodies within the ſolar ſyſtem, by which they mutually draw or attract one another in proportion to their diſtance, it follows, that thoſe parts of the ſea which are immediately below the moon, muſt be drawn towards it; and conſequently, wherever

the

the moon is nearly vertical, the ſea will be raiſed, which occaſions the flowing of the tide there. A ſimilar reaſon occaſions the flowing of the tide likewiſe in thoſe places where the moon is in the nadir, and which muſt be diametrically oppoſite to the former: for in the hemiſphere fartheſt from the moon, the parts in the nadir being leſs attracted by her than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate leſs towards the earth's centre, and conſequently muſt be higher than the reſt. Thoſe parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the zenith and nadir riſe at the ſame time, the waters in their neighbourhood will preſs towards thoſe places to maintain the equilibrium; to ſupply the places of theſe, others will move the ſame way, and ſo on to the places ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be loweſt. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, above explained, we ſhall be ſenſible of the reaſon why the tides ebb and flow twice in twenty-four hours, in every place on this globe.

The tides are higher than ordinary, twice every month, that is about the times of new and full moon, and are called *Spring Tides*: for at theſe times the actions of both the ſun and moon are united, and draw in the ſame ſtraight line, and conſequently the ſea muſt be more elevated. At the conjunction, or when the ſun and moon are on the ſame ſide of the earth, they both conſpire to raiſe the waters in the zenith, and conſequently in the nadir; and at the oppoſition, or when the earth is between the ſun and moon, while one occaſions high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the ſame. The tides are leſs than ordinary twice every month, about the firſt and laſt quarters of the moon, and are called *Neap Tides*: for in thoſe quarters, the ſun raiſes the waters where the moon depreſſes them, and depreſſes where the moon raiſes them; ſo that the tides are only occaſioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is neareſt us, prevails over that of the ſun. Theſe things would happen uniformly, were the whole ſurface of the earth covered with water; but ſince there are a multitude of iſlands and continents which interrupt the natural courſe of the water, a variety of appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without regarding the ſituation of ſhores, ſtraits, and other objects which have a ſhare in producing them.

CURRENTS.] There are frequently ſtreams or currents in the ocean, which ſet ſhips a great way beyond their intended courſe. There is a current between Florida and the Bahama Iſlands, which always runs from north to ſouth. A current runs conſtantly from the Atlantic, through the ſtraits of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean. A current ſets out of the Baltic ſea, through the ſound or ſtrait between Sweden and Denmark, into the Britiſh channel, ſo that there are no tides in the Baltic. About ſmall iſlands and head-lands in the middle of the ocean, the tides riſe very little; but in ſome bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they riſe from 12 to 50 feet.

MAPS.] A map is the repreſentation of the earth, or a part thereof, on a plane ſurface. Maps differ from the globe in the ſame manner as a picture does from a ſtatue. The globe truly repreſents the earth; whereas a map, being a plane ſurface, cannot repreſent a ſpherical body. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet by means of ſeveral of them, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the repreſentation will not fall very much ſhort of the globe

for

for exactneſs; becauſe ſuch maps, if joined together, would form a ſpherical convex nearly as round as the globe itſelf.

CARDINAL POINTS.] The north is conſidered as the upper part of the map; the ſouth is at the bottom, oppoſite to the north; the eaſt is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the weſt on the left hand oppoſite to the eaſt. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude*; and from ſide to ſide, *parallels of latitude*. The outermoſt of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude and longitude, by means of which, and the ſcale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the ſituation, diſtance, &c. of places, may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus, to find the diſtance of two places, ſuppoſe London and Paris, by the map, we have only to meaſure the ſpace between them with the compaſſes, or a bit of thread, and to apply this diſtance to the ſcale of miles, which ſhows that London is 210 miles diſtant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or ſouth, eaſt or weſt, from each other, we have only to obſerve the degrees on the meridians and parallels; and by turning theſe into miles, we obtain the diſtance without meaſuring. Rivers are deſcribed in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head of the ſpring. Mountains are ſketched on maps as on a picture. Foreſts and woods are repreſented by a kind of ſhrub; bogs and moraſſes, by ſhades; ſands and ſhallows are deſcribed by ſmall dots; and roads uſually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expreſſed by figures repreſenting fathoms.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.] There is ſcarcely a greater variety in any thing than in this ſort of meaſure: not only thoſe of ſeparate countries differ, as the French from the Engliſh, but thoſe of the ſame country vary, in the different provinces, from each other, and from the ſtandard. Thus the common Engliſh mile differs from the ſtatute mile; and the French have three ſorts of leagues. We ſhall here give the miles of ſeveral countries, compared with the Engliſh, by Dr. Halley.

The Engliſh ſtatute mile conſiſts of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.

The Ruſſian vorſt is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ Engliſh.
The Turkiſh, Italian, and old Roman leſſer mile, is nearly one Engliſh.
The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ Engliſh.
The Scotch and Iriſh mile is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh.
The Indian is almoſt 3 Engliſh.
The Dutch, Spaniſh, and Poliſh, is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh.
The German is more than 4 Engliſh.
The Swediſh, Daniſh, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 Engliſh.
The French common league is near 3 Engliſh; and
The Engliſh marine league is 3 Engliſh miles.

PART II.

OF THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, AND COMMERCE.

HAVING, in the following work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and even ſometimes, in ſpeaking of thoſe countries, carried our reſearches beyond modern times,—it was thought neceſſary, in order

order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular hiſtory of each country we deſcribe, to place before his eye a general view of the hiſtory of mankind, from the firſt ages of the world to the reformation in religion during the 16th century. By a hiſtory of the world, we do not mean a mere liſt of dates (which, when taken by itſelf, is a thing extremely inſignificant), but an account of the moſt intereſting and important events which have happened among mankind; with the cauſes which have produced, and the effects which have followed from them. This we judge to be a matter of high importance in itſelf, and indiſpenſably requiſite to the underſtanding of the preſent ſtate of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country; which may be called commercial and political geography, and which, undoubtedly, conſtitutes the moſt uſeful branch of that ſcience.

The great event of the creation of the world, before which there was neither matter nor form of any thing, is placed, according to the beſt chronologers, in the year before Chriſt 4004; and in the 7101th year of what is called the Julian period, which has been adopted by ſome chronologers and hiſtorians, but is of little real ſervice. The ſacred records have fully determined the queſtion, that the world was not eternal, and alſo aſcertained the time of its creation with great preciſion*.

It appears in general, from the firſt chapters in Geneſis, that the world, before the flood, was extremely populous; that mankind had made conſiderable improvement in the arts, and were become extremely vicious, both in their ſentiments and manners. Their wickedneſs gave occaſion to a memorable cataſtrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were ſwept from off the face of the earth. The deluge took place in the 1656th year of the world, and produced a very conſiderable change in the ſoil and atmoſphere of this globe, and gave them a form leſs friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgment of the life of man, and that formidable train of diſeaſes which has ever ſince made ſuch havock in the world. A curious part of hiſtory follows that of the deluge, the repeopling of the world, and the riſing of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three ſons of Noah, the firſt founders of nations, was long preſerved among their ſeveral deſcendents. Japhet continued famous among the weſtern nations, under the celebrated name of Iapetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and, among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter Hammon. It appears that hunting was the principal occupation ſome centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beaſts; and the great heroiſm of thoſe times conſiſted in deſtroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired immortal renown, and, by the admiration which his courage and dexterity univerſally excited, was enabled to acquire an authority over his fellow-creatures, and to found at Babylon the firſt monarchy whoſe origin is particularly mentioned in hiſtory. Not long after, the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Aſſur; in Egypt the four governments of Thebes, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. That theſe events ſhould have happened ſo ſoon after the

Before Chriſt, 2348.

B. C. 2247.

* The Samaritan copy of the Bible makes the antediluvian period only 1307 years, 349 ſhort of the Hebrew Bible computation; and the Septuagint copy ſtretches it to 2262 years, which is 606 years exceeding it; but the Hebrew chronology is generally acknowledged to be of ſuperior authority.

deluge,

deluge, whatever ſurpriſe it may have occaſioned to the learned ſome centuries ago, need not in the ſmalleſt degree excite the wonder of the preſent age. We have ſeen, from many inſtances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how ſpeedily mankind increaſe, when the generative faculty lies under no reſtraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more extenſive than thoſe of Babylon, Nineveh, and Egypt, during that early age; and yet theſe kingdoms are not ſuppoſed to have exiſted four centuries before the diſcovery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to ſeparate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated or obſcured. This occaſioned the calling of Abraham to be the father of a choſen people. From this period the hiſtory of ancient nations begins a little to expand itſelf; and we learn ſeveral particulars of very conſiderable importance.

B. C. 1921*.

Mankind had not long been united into ſocieties before they ſet themſelves to oppreſs and deſtroy one another. Chaderlaomer, king of the Elamites, or Perſians, was already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, muſt not have been very conſiderable, ſince, in one of his expeditions, Abraham, aſſiſted only by his houſehold, ſet upon him in his retreat, and, after a fierce engagement, recovered all the ſpoil that had been taken. Abraham was ſoon after obliged by a famine to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to ſettle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gives occaſion to Moſes to mention ſome particulars reſpecting the Egyptians, which evidently diſcover the characteriſtics of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyptian monarch is deſcribed in the moſt brilliant colours. He was ſurrounded by a crowd of courtiers, ſolely occupied in gratifying his paſſions. The particular governments into which that country was divided, were now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, became the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine, that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been ſo juſtly admired for their wiſdom, were the work of that early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many ſucceſſive princes, who laboured for their eſtabliſhment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, two centuries after, the firſt principles of civil order and regular government ſeem to have been tolerably underſtood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into ſeveral diſtricts or ſeparate departments; councils, compoſed of experienced and ſelect perſons, were eſtabliſhed for the management of public affairs; granaries for preſerving corn were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in that age enjoyed a commerce far from inconſiderable. Theſe facts, though of an ancient date, deſerve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans, the preſent inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civility and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained ſeparate for ſeveral centuries; but we know not even the names of the kings who governed them, unleſs it be Ninus, the ſucceſſor of Aſſur, who, fired with the ſpirit of conqueſt, extended the

* According to Dr. Playfair's Chronological Tables, the birth of Abraham is fixed at before Chriſt 2060, and his being called out of Urr, at 1986.

bounds

bounds of his kingdom, added Babylon to his dominions, and laid the foundation of that monarchy, which, raiſed to its meridian ſplendor by his enterpriſing ſucceſſor Semiramis, and diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Aſſyrian empire, kept Aſia under the yoke for many ages.

Javan, ſon of Japhet, and grand-ſon of Noah, is the ſtock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are deſcended. Javan eſtabliſhed himſelf in the iſlands on the weſtern coaſt of Aſia Minor, from whence it was impoſſible that ſome wanderers ſhould not paſs over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon, near Corinth, founded by the Pelaſgi, is generally ſuppoſed to have commenced in the year before Chriſt 2090. To theſe firſt inhabitants ſucceeded a colony from Egypt, who, about 2000 years before the Chriſtian æra, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to eſtabliſh monarchy in that country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil polity of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans was ſoon diſſolved; and the Greeks, who ſeem to have been at this time as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, again fell back into their lawleſs and ſavage manner of life. Several colonies, however, ſoon after paſſed over from Aſia into Greece, and, by remaining in that country, produced a more conſiderable alteration in the manners of its inhabitants. The moſt ancient of theſe were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former ſettled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know very little of Ogyges or his ſucceſſors. Thoſe of Inachus endeavoured to unite the diſperſed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpoſe were not altogether unſucceſsful. B. C. 1850.

But the hiſtory of God's choſen people, the Iſraelites, is the only one with which we are much acquainted during thoſe ages. The train of curious events which occaſioned the ſettling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt of which Tanis was the capital, are univerſally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint verſion, 1794 years before Chriſt, but, according to the Hebrew chronology, only 1689 years, and in the year of the world 2315. This is a remarkable æra with reſpect to the nations of heathen antiquity, and concludes that period of time which the Greeks conſidered as altogether unknown, and which they have greatly diſfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us regard this period then in another point of view, and conſider what we can learn from the ſacred writings, with reſpect to the arts, manners, and laws of ancient nations. B. C. 1689.

It is a common error among writers on this ſubject, to conſider all the nations of antiquity as being on the ſame footing with regard to thoſe matters. They find ſome nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude that all were in that ſituation. They diſcover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wiſdom of the firſt ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the ancient world, in point of art and refinement, as between the civiliſed kingdoms of modern Europe, and the Indians of America, or the Negroes on the coaſt of Africa. Noah was undoubtedly acquainted with all the arts of the antediluvian world: theſe he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their poſterity. Thoſe nations, therefore, who ſettled neareſt the original ſeat of mankind, and who had the beſt opportunities to avail themſelves of the knowledge which their great anceſtor was poſſeſſed of, early formed themſelves into regular ſocieties, and made conſiderable improvements in the arts which are moſt ſubſervient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been known in the firſt ages of the

world. Noah cultivated the vine: in the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the inſtruments of huſbandry, long before the diſcovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the ſacred writings. It is hardly to be ſuppoſed that the ancient cities, both in Aſia and Egypt, whoſe foundation, as we have already mentioned, aſcends to the remoteſt antiquity, could have been built, unleſs the culture of the ground had been practiſed at that time. Nations who live by hunting or paſturage only, lead a wandering life, and ſeldom fix their reſidence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture: and though we cannot trace the ſteps by which it was introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached paſſages in ſacred writ, aſcertain the progreſs which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know from the hiſtory of civil ſociety, that the commercial intercourſe between men muſt be pretty conſiderable, before the metals come to be conſidered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the caſe even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which eſtabliſh this fact, that the uſe of money had not been of ancient date; it had no mark to aſcertain its weight or fineneſs; and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave ſilver, the metal was weighed in preſence of all the people. But as commerce improved, and bargains of this ſort became more common, this practice was laid aſide, and the quantity of ſilver was aſcertained by a particular mark, which ſaved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the ſecond from Abraham. The *reſilah*, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, ſtamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a preciſe and ſtated value. It appears from the hiſtory of Joſeph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Iſhmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, reſembling the modern caravans, who carried ſpices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The ſame obſervation may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the beſt writers, was a native of Arabia Felix, and alſo a contemporary with Jacob. He ſpeaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, i. e. of the caravans which ſet out from thoſe cities of Arabia. If we reflect that the commodities of that country were rather the luxuries than the conveniences of life, we ſhall have reaſon to conclude that the countries into which they were ſent for ſale, and particularly Egypt, were conſiderably improved in arts and refinement: for people do not think of luxuries, until the uſeful arts have made high advancement among them.

In ſpeaking of commerce, we ought carefully to diſtinguiſh between the ſpecies of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by ſea; which laſt kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and ſlower in its progreſs. Had the deſcendents of Noah been left to their own ingenuity, and received no tincture of the antediluvian knowledge from their wiſe anceſtors, it is improbable that they ſhould have ventured on navigating the open ſeas ſo ſoon as we find they did. That branch of his poſterity, who ſettled on the coaſts of Paleſtine, were the firſt people of the world among whom navigation was made ſubſervient to commerce: they were diſtinguiſhed by a word, which in the Hebrew tongue ſignifies *merchants*, and are the ſame nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful ſoil, they ſet themſelves to better their ſituation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object: and with all the writers of pagan

antiquity, they pass for the inventors of whatever is subservient to it. At the time of Abraham they were regarded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his last words to his children; and, if we may believe Herodotus in a matter of such remote antiquity, the Phœnicians had by this time navigated the coasts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, suppose the knowledge of several others: astronomy, for instance, or a knowledge of the situation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is necessary both to agriculture and navigation; that of working metals, to commerce; and so of other arts. In fact, we find, that, before the death of Jacob, several nations were so well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to measure by them the duration of their year. It had been an universal custom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into portion of a week, or seven days: this undoubtedly arose from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for those nations who led a pastoral life, or who lived under a serene sky, to observe that the various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks; hence the division of a month. Those people, again, who lived by agriculture, and were become acquainted with the division of the month, would naturally remark that twelve of these brought back the same temperature of the air, or the same seasons; hence the origin of what is called the *lunar year*, which has every where taken place in the infancy of science. This, together with the observation of the fixed stars, which, as we learn from the book of Job, must have been very ancient, naturally paved the way for the discovery of the *solar year*, which at that time would be thought an immense improvement in astronomy. But with regard to those branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered, that they were peculiar to the Egyptians, and a few nations of Asia. Europe offers a frightful spectacle during this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who in later ages become the patterns of politeness and of every elegant art, were descended from a savage race of men, traversing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and sometimes to each other? This, however, is no more than what was to be expected. Those descendents of Noah, who had removed to a great distance from the plains of Shinar, lost all connection with the civilised part of mankind. Their posterity became still more ignorant; and the human mind was at length sunk into an abyss of misery and wretchedness.

We might naturally expect, that, from the death of Jacob, and as we advance forward in time, the history of the great empires of Egypt and Assyria would emerge from their obscurity. This, however, is far from being the case; we only get a glimpse of them, and they disappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninias, who succeeded Semiramis and Ninus in the Assyrian throne, we find an astonishing blank in the history of that empire, for no less than eight hundred years. The silence of ancient history on this subject is commonly attributed to the softness and effeminacy of the successors of Ninus, whose lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the historian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wise princes pass unobserved and unrecorded. Sesostris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is supposed to have mounted the throne of Egypt after Amenophis, who was swallowed up in the Red Sea about the year before Christ 1492. By his assiduity and attention, the civil and military establishments of the Egyptians received very considerable improvements. Egypt, in the time B. C. 1965.

of Seſoſtris and his immediate ſucceſſors, was, in all probability, the moſt powerful kingdom upon earth, and, according to the beſt calculation, is ſuppoſed to have contained twenty-ſeven millions of inhabitants. But ancient hiſtory often excites, without gratifying our curioſity; for, from the reign of Seſoſtris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Chriſt 1781, we have little knowledge of even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumſtances, the country muſt ſtill have continued in a very flouriſhing condition; for Egypt continued

B. C. 1556. to pour fourth her colonies into diſtant nations. Athens, that ſeat of learning and politeneſs, that ſchool for all who aſpired after wiſdom, owes its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civiliſe the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the inſtitutions which Cecrops eſtabliſhed among the Athenians, it is eaſy to infer in what a condition they muſt have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are ſo barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beaſts of the field, were propagated by accidental rencounters, and with little knowledge of thoſe to whom they

B. C. 1506. owed their generation. Cranaus, who ſucceeded Cecrops in the kingdom of Attica, purſued the ſame beneficial plan, and endeavoured, by wiſe inſtitutions, to bridle the keen paſſions of a rude people.

Whilſt thoſe princes uſed their endeavours for civiliſing this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country, by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, was divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the Eaſt, began to aſ-

B. C. 1496. ſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. This engaged Amphictyon, one of thoſe uncommon geniuſes who appear in the world for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration of poſterity, to think of ſome expedient by which he might unite in one confederacy the ſeveral independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from thoſe inteſtine diviſions which muſt render them a prey to one another, or to the firſt enemy who might think proper to invade them. Theſe reflections he communicated to the kings or leaders of the different territories, and by his eloquence and addreſs engaged twelve cities to unite together for their common preſervation. Two deputies from each of thoſe cities aſſembled twice a year at Thermopylæ, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictyonic council. In this aſſembly, whatever related to the general intereſt of the confederacy, was diſcuſſed and finally determined. Amphictyon likewiſe, ſenſible that thoſe political connections are the moſt laſting which are ſtrengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictyons the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches which, from the dedications of thoſe who conſulted the oracle, had been amaſſed in it. This aſſembly, conſtituted on ſuch ſolid foundations, was the great ſpring of action in Greece, while that country preſerved its independence; and, by the union which it inſpired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties againſt all the force of the Perſian empire. Conſidering the circumſtances of the age in which it was inſtituted, the Amphictyonic council is perhaps the moſt remarkable political eſtabliſhment which ever took place among mankind. In the year before Chriſt 1322, the Iſthmian games were inſtituted at Corinth; and in 1303 the famous Olympic games by Pelops; which games, together with the Pythian and Nemean, have been rendered immortal by the genius of Pindar. The Greek ſtates, who formerly had no connection with one another, except by mutual inroads and hoſtilities, ſoon began to act with concert, and to undertake diſtant expeditions for the general

neral interest of the confederacy. The first of these was the famous expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have been concerned. The object of the Argonauts was to open the commerce of the Euxine sea, and to establish colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ship Argo, which was the admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly taken notice of; though we learn from Homer and other ancient writers, that several vessels were employed in that expedition. The fleet was, from the ignorance of those who conducted it, long tossed about on different coasts. The rocks, at some distance from the mouth of the Euxine sea, occasioned great difficulty to the Argonauts: they sent forward a light vessel, which passed through, but returned with the loss of her rudder. This is expressed in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their sending out a bird which returned with the loss of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obscurity in which the other events of that expedition are involved. The fleet, however, at length arrived at Æa, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, considering the mean condition of the naval art during that age, was not less considerable than the circumnavigation of the world by our modern discoverers. From this expedition to that against Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair Helena, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off by Paris, son of the Trojan king, the Greeks must have made a wonderful progress in power and opulence: no less than twelve hundred vessels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. These vessels, however, were but half-decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their construction. If we add to these circumstances, that the Greeks had not the use of the saw, an instrument so necessary to the carpenter, a modern must form but a mean notion of the strength or elegance of this fleet.

B. C. 1263.

B. C. 1184.

Having thus considered the state of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumstances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our present undertaking, because it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progress of government, arts, and manners, which compose so great a part of our present work. There appears originally to have been a remarkable resemblance, as to their political situation, between the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather by a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who presided in the administration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being absolute. In each society there were a number of other leaders, whose influence over their particular clans, or tribes, was not less considerable than that of the king over his immediate followers. These captains were often at war with each other, and sometimes with their sovereign. Such a situation was, in all respects, extremely unfavourable: each particular state was, in miniature, what the whole country had been before the time of Amphictyon. They required the hand of another delicate painter to blend the opposite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The history of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which these states, which, for want of union, were weak and insignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theseus, king of Attica, about the year B. C. 1234, had, by his exploits, acquired great reputation for valour and ability. He saw the inconveniences to which his country, from being divided into twelve districts, was exposed; and he conceived, that, by means of the influence which his personal character, united to the royal authority with which he was invested, had universally procured him, he might be able to remove them. For this purpose he

endeavoured to maintain and even to increaſe his popularity among the peaſants and artiſans; he detached, as much as poſſible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them; he aboliſhed the courts which had been eſtabliſhed in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall common to all the Athenians. Theſeus, however, did not truſt ſolely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices; by eſtabliſhing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither ſtrangers from all quarters by the proſpect of protection and privileges, he raiſed that city from an inconſiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The ſplendor of Athens and of Theſeus now totally eclipſed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the ſtate was united in one city, and under one ſovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occaſioned ſo much confuſion, being now diveſted of all influence and conſideration, became humble and ſubmiſſive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

This is a rude ſketch of the origin of the firſt monarchy of which we have a diſtinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other ſtates of Greece. This country, however, was not deſtined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence aroſe, which in a ſhort time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theſeus had divided the Athenians into three diſtinct claſſes,—the nobles, the artiſans, and the huſbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had beſtowed many privileges on the two other ranks of citizens. This plan of politics was followed by his ſucceſſors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their ſovereign, and partly from the progreſs of arts and manufactures which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became conſiderable and independent. Theſe circumſtances were attended with a remarkable effect. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, in the year B. C. 1070, the Athenians, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himſelf to death for the ſafety of his people, aboliſhed the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter ſhould be king of Athens. This revolution in favour of liberty was ſo much the more remarkable, as it ſoon after happened that the Jews became unwilling to remain under the government of the true God, and deſired a mortal ſovereign, that they might be like other nations. B. C. 1095.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian ſtates, much about the ſame time, aſſumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phœnicia, had founded this city, which from that time had been governed by kings. But the laſt ſovereign being overcome in ſingle combat by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans aboliſhed the regal power. Till the days however of Pelopidas and Epaminondas (a period of ſeven hundred years), the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican ſpirit. Other cities of Greece, after the examples of Thebes and Athens, erected themſelves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival ſtates, which, by means of the ſuperiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deſerve our particular attention. We have ſeen a tender ſhoot of liberty ſpring up in the city of Athens, upon the deceaſe of Codrus, its laſt ſovereign. This ſhoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant; and it cannot but be pleaſant to obſerve its progreſs. The Athenians, by abcliſhing the name of king, did not entirely ſubvert the regal authority: they eſtabliſhed a perpe- B. C. 1070.

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tual magiſtrate, who, under the name of Archon, was inveſted with almoſt the ſame powers which their kings had enjoyed. The Athenians in time became ſenſible that the archontic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free ſtate. After it had continued, therefore, three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to leſſen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by ſhortening its duration. The firſt period aſſigned for the continuance of the archonſhip in the ſame hands, was three years. But the deſire of the Athenians for a more perfect ſyſtem of freedom than had hitherto been eſtabliſhed, increaſed in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again called out for a freſh reduction of the power of their archons; and it was at length determined that nine annual magiſtrates ſhould be appointed for this office. Theſe magiſtrates were not only choſen by the people, but accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. Theſe alterations were too violent not to be attended with ſome dangerous conſequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the moſt unruly and licentious behaviour. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens; and it was hardly poſſible that the ancient cuſtoms of the realm, which were naturally ſuppoſed to be in part aboliſhed by the ſucceſſive changes in the government, ſhould ſufficiently reſtrain the tumultuary ſpirits of the Athenians in the firſt flutter of their independence. This engaged the wiſer part of the ſtate, who began to prefer any ſyſtem of government to their preſent anarchy and confuſion, to caſt their eyes on Draco, a man of an auſtere but virtuous diſpoſition, as the fitteſt perſon for compoſing a ſyſtem of law, to bridle the furious and unruly manners of their countrymen. Draco undertook the office about the year 628, but executed it with ſo much rigour, that, in the words of an ancient hiſtorian, "His laws were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiſcriminate puniſhment of every offence, and the code of Draco proved to be a remedy worſe than the diſeaſe. Affairs again fell into confuſion, which continued till thoſe laws were reformed in the time of Solon, about the year before Chriſt 594. The gentle manners, diſintereſted virtue, and wiſdom more than human, by which this ſage was diſtinguiſhed, pointed him out as the only character adapted to the moſt important of all offices,—the giving laws to a free people. Solon, though this employment was aſſigned him by the unanimous voice of his country, long deliberated whether he ſhould undertake it. At length, however, the motives of public utility overcame all conſiderations of private eaſe, ſafety, and reputation, and determined him to enter an ocean pregnant with a thouſand dangers. The firſt ſtep of his legiſlation was to aboliſh all the laws of Draco, excepting thoſe relative to murder. The puniſhment of this crime could not be too great; but to conſider other offences as equally criminal, was confounding all notions of right and wrong, and rendering the law ineffectual by means of its ſeverity. Solon next proceeded to new-model the political law: his eſtabliſhments on this head remained among the Athenians, while they preſerved their liberties. He ſeems to have ſet out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen ſhould have an equal political importance, was a ſyſtem of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible to practice. He divided the citizens therefore into four claſſes, according to the wealth which they poſſeſſed; and the pooreſt claſs he rendered altogether incapable of any public office. They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the laſt reſort. But leſt this aſſembly, which was compoſed of all the citizens, ſhould, in the words of Plutarch, like a ſhip with too

B. C. 684.

many ſails, be expoſed to the guſts of folly, tumult, and diſorder, he provided for its ſafety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The firſt of theſe courts conſiſted of four hundred perſons, a hundred from each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important bills that came before the aſſembly of the people: the ſecond, though but a court of juſtice, gained a prodigious aſcendency in the republic, by the wiſdom and gravity of its members, who were not choſen, but after the ſtricteſt ſcrutiny and the moſt ſerious deliberation.

Such was the ſyſtem of government eſtabliſhed by Solon, which, the nearer we examine it, will afford the more matter for our admiration. Upon the ſame plan moſt of the other ancient republics were eſtabliſhed. To inſiſt on all of them, therefore, would be neither entertaining nor inſtructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedæmon, had ſomething in it ſo peculiar, that the great outlines of it at leaſt ought not to be here omitted. The country, of which Sparta afterwards became the capital, was, like the other ſtates of Greece, originally divided into ſeveral petty principalities, of which each was under the juriſdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is ſaid to have been the firſt king, about the

B. C. year B. C. 1516. At length, the two brothers, Euryſthenes and
1102. Procles, getting poſſeſſion of this country, became conjunct in the royalty; and, what is extremely ſingular, their poſterity, in a direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, anno 220 before the Chriſtian æra. The Spartan govern-

B. C. ment, however, did not take that ſingular form which renders it ſo
884. remarkable, until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legiſlator. The plan of policy deviſed by Lycurgus, agreed with that already deſcribed in comprehending a ſenate and aſſembly of the people, and in general all thoſe eſtabliſhments which are deemed moſt requiſite for the ſecurity of political independence. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whoſe office was hereditary, though their power was ſufficiently circumſcribed by proper checks and reſtraints. But the great characteriſtic of the Spartan conſtitution aroſe from this, that, in all laws, Lycurgus had at leaſt as much reſpect to war as to political liberty. With this view, all ſorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing, in ſhort, which had the ſmalleſt tendency to ſoften the minds of the Spartans, was abſolutely proſcribed. They were forbidden the uſe of money; they lived at public tables on the coarſeſt fare; the younger were taught to pay the utmoſt reverence to the more advanced in years; and all ranks capable of bearing arms were daily accuſtomed to the moſt painful exerciſes. To the Spartans alone, war was a relaxation rather than a hardſhip; and they behaved in it with a ſpirit of which hardly any but a Spartan could even form a conception.

In order to ſee the effect of theſe principles, and to connect under one point of view the hiſtory of the different quarters of the globe, we muſt now caſt our eyes on Aſia, and obſerve the events which happened in thoſe

B. C. great empires of which we have ſo long loſt ſight. We have al-
781. ready mentioned in what obſcurity the hiſtory of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Bocchoris. From this period to the diſſolution of their government by Cambyſes of Perſia, in the year B. C. 524, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wiſdom of their laws and political inſtitutions, than for the power of their arms. Several of theſe ſeem to have been dictated by the true ſpirit of civil wiſdom, and were admirably calculated for preſerving order and good government in an extenſive kingdom. The great empire of Aſſyria likewiſe, which had ſo long diſappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the firſt inſtance we meet

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with in hiſtory, of a kingdom which fell aſunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakneſs of its ſovereigns. Sardanapalus, the laſt emperor of Aſſyria, neglecting the adminiſtration of affairs, and ſhutting himſelf up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his ſubjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to ſeize this opportunity of raiſing their own fortune on the ruins of their maſter's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Beleſis governor of Babylon, conſpired againſt their ſovereign, and having ſet fire to his capital (in which Sardanapalus periſhed, B. C. 820), divided between them his extenſive dominions. Theſe two kingdoms, ſometimes united under one prince, and ſometimes governed each by a particular ſovereign, maintained the chief ſway in Aſia for many years. Phul revived the kingdom of Aſſyria, anno B. C. 777; and Shalmaneſer, one of his ſucceſſors, put an end to the kingdom of Iſrael, and carried the ten tribes captive into Aſſyria and Media, B. C. 721. Neburchadnezzar king of Babylon, alſo, in the year B. C. 587, overturned the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year 1055, and maſtered all the countries around him. But in the year 538, Cyrus the Great took Babylon, and reduced this quarter of the world under the Perſian yoke. The manners of this people as brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus, in all its various departments, are elegantly deſcribed by Xenophon, a Grecian philoſopher and hiſtorian. It is not neceſſary, however, that we ſhould enter into the ſame detail upon this ſubject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, ſufficient examples of monarchical governments: but how few are our republics! But the æra of Cyrus is in one reſpect extremely remarkable, beſides delivering the Jews from their captivity, becauſe, with it the hiſtory of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be ſuppoſed to finiſh. Let us conſider then the genius of the Aſſyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and ſciences,—and, if poſſible, diſcover what progreſs they had made in thoſe acquirements which are moſt ſubſervient to the intereſts of ſociety. B. C. 538.

The taſte for the great and magnificent ſeems to have been the prevailing character of thoſe nations; and they principally diſplayed it in their works of architecture. There are no veſtiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the teſtimony of ancient writers with regard to the great works which adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finiſhed. There are three pyramids, ſtupendous fabrics, ſtill remaining in Egypt, at ſome leagues diſtance from Cairo, and about nine miles from the Nile, which are ſuppoſed to have been the burying places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largeſt is five hundred feet in height, and each ſide of the baſe ſix hundred and ninety-three feet in length. The apex is 13 feet ſquare. The ſecond covers as much ground as the firſt, but is 40 feet lower. It was a ſuperſtition among the Egyptians, derived from the earlieſt times, that even after death the ſoul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the cuſtom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body ſuch ſubſtances as experience had diſcovered to be the greateſt preſervatives againſt putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the ſame view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings were depoſited. This expedient, together with embalming, as theſe ſuperſtitious monarchs conceived, would inevitably ſecure a ſafe and comfortable retreat for their ſouls after death. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple

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of Belus, and other works of the Eaſt, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that they were really ſuperb and magnificent ſtructures, but totally void of elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet known, nor even the conſtruction of vaults. The arts in which thoſe nations, next to architecture, principally excelled, were ſculpture and embroidery. As to the ſciences, they had all along continued to beſtow their principal attention on aſtronomy. It does not appear, however, that they made great progreſs in explaining the cauſes of the phænomena of the univerſe, or indeed in any ſpecies of rational and ſound philoſophy. To demonſtrate this to an intelligent reader, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that, according to the teſtimony of ſacred and profane writers, the abſurd reveries of magic and aſtrology, which always decreaſe in proportion to the advancement of true ſcience, were in high eſteem among them during the lateſt period of their government. The countries which they occupied were extremely fruitful, and, without much labour, afforded all the neceſſaries and even luxuries of life. They had long been accuſtomed to a civiliſed and poliſhed life in great cities. Theſe circumſtances had tainted their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an eaſy prey to the Perſians, a nation juſt emerging from barbariſm, and of conſequence brave and warlike. This was ſtill more eaſy in the infancy of the military art, when ſtrength and courage were the only circumſtances which gave the advantage to one nation over another,—when, properly ſpeaking, there were no fortified places, which in modern times have been diſcovered to be ſo uſeful in ſtopping the progreſs of a victorious enemy,—and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we muſt now turn our attention to other objects.

The hiſtory of Perſia, after the reign of Cyrus, who died in the year B. C. 529, offers little, conſidered in itſelf, that merits our regard; but when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly intereſting. The monarchs, who ſucceeded Cyrus, gave an opportunity to the Greeks to exerciſe thoſe virtues which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's inſtitutions: Athens had juſt recovered from the tyranny of the Piſiſtratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and uſurped the

B. C. 504. ſupreme power. Such was their ſituation, when the luſt of univerſal empire, which ſeldom fails to torment the breaſt of tyrants, led Darius (as the inſtigation of Hippias, who had been expelled from Athens, and on account of the Athenians burning the city of Sardis) to ſend forth his numerous armies againſt Greece. But the Perſians were no longer thoſe invincible ſoldiers, who, under Cyrus, had conquered Aſia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and ſervitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, whoſe minds were nobly animated by

B. C. 490. the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, in the plains of Marathon, with ten thouſand Athenians, overcame the Perſian army of a hundred thouſand foot, and ten thouſand cavalry. His countrymen, Themiſtocles and Ariſtides, the firſt celebrated for his abilities, the ſecond for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the nobleſt monument of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over ſervitude, deſerve to be read at length in ancient writers.

B. C. 480. Xerxes, the ſon of Darius, came in perſon into Greece, with an immenſe army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted to two millions and one hundred thouſand men. This account has been juſtly conſidered by ſome ingenious modern writers, as incredible. The truth

truth cannot now be aſcertained; but that the army of Xerxes was extremely numerous, is the more probable, from the great extent of his empire, and from the abſurd practice of the Eaſtern nations, of encumbering their camp with a ſuperfluous multitude. Whatever the numbers of his army were, he was every where defeated, by ſea and land, and eſcaped to Aſia in a fiſhing-boat. Such was the ſpirit of the Greeks, and ſo well did they know that "wanting virtue, life is pain and woe; that wanting liberty, "even virtue mourns, and looks around for happineſs in vain." But though the Perſian war concluded gloriouſly for the Greeks, it is in a great meaſure, to this war, that the ſubſequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they ſuffered the loſs of ſo many brave men, but thoſe in which they acquired an immenſity of Perſian gold,—it was not their enduring ſo many hardſhips in the courſe of the war, but their connections with the Perſians after the concluſion of it,—which ſubverted the Grecian eſtabliſhments, and ruined the moſt virtuous confederacy that ever exiſted upon earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories; delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another; their quarrels were fomented by Perſian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them deſirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponneſian war, B.C. 431. in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and drew after them the other ſtates of Greece. They continued to weaken themſelves by theſe inteſtine diviſions, till Philip, king of Macedon (a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of this prince, became important and powerful), rendered himſelf the abſolute maſter of Greece, by the battle of Chæronea. But this B.C. conqueſt is one of the firſt we meet with in hiſtory, which did not 338. depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his ſcheme ſo deeply, and by bribery, promiſes, and intrigues, gained over ſuch a number of conſiderable perſons in the ſeveral ſtates of Greece to his intereſt, that another day would have put in his poſſeſſion what Chæronea had denied him. The Greeks had loſt that virtue which was the baſis of their confederacy. Their popular governments ſerved only to give a ſanction to their licentiouſneſs and corruption. The principal orators in moſt of their ſtates were bribed in the ſervice of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demoſthenes, aſſiſted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean but more ſeductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, uſed the ſureſt method of winning their affections.

Philip had propoſed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece. But he did not long ſurvive the battle of Chæronea. Upon his deceaſe, his ſon Alexander was choſen general againſt the Perſians, by all the Grecian ſtates, except the Athenians and The- B.C. bans. Theſe made a feeble effort for expiring liberty; but they 334. were obliged to yield to ſuperior force. Secure on the ſide of Greece, Alexander ſet out on his Perſian expedition, at the head of thirty thouſand foot, and five thouſand horſe. The ſucceſs of this army in conquering the whole force of Darius in three pitched battles, in over-running and ſubduing, not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, whoſe very names had never before reached an European ear, has been deſcribed by many authors, both ancient and modern, and conſtitutes a ſingular part of the hiſtory of the B.C. world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and ſucceſs, Alex- 323. ander died at Babylon. His captains, after ſacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided among them his dominions. This gives riſe to a number of æras and events too complicated for our preſent purpoſe,

poſe, and even too unintereſting. After conſidering therefore the ſtate of arts and ſciences in Greece, we ſhall paſs over to the Roman affairs, where the hiſtorical deduction is more ſimple, and alſo more important.

The bare names of illuſtrious men who flouriſhed in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the higheſt pitch of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawnings of that glorious day. Though the eaſtern nations had raiſed magnificent and ſtupendous ſtructures, the Greeks were the firſt people in the world, who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympius and of the Epheſian Diana were the firſt monuments of good taſte. They were erected by the Grecian colonies who ſettled in Aſia Minor before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, is the firſt ſculptor whoſe works have been immortal. Zeuxis, Parrhaſius, and Timanthes, during the ſame age, firſt diſcovered the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Compoſition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Heſiod and Homer, who flouriſhed 1000 years before the Chriſtian æra, the tragic poets, Æſchylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the firſt conſiderable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave ſimplicity and elegance to proſaic writing. Iſocrates gave it cadence and harmony; but it was left to Thucydides and Demoſthenes to diſcover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not, however, in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every ſpecies of philoſophy was cultivated among them with the utmoſt ſucceſs. Not to mention the divine Socrates, the virtues of whoſe life, and the excellence of whoſe philoſophy, juſtly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration,—his three diſciples, Plato, Ariſtotle, and Xenophon, may, for ſtrength of reaſoning, juſtneſs of ſentiment, and propriety of expreſſion, be put on a footing with the beſt writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long courſe of years, has taught us many ſecrets in nature, with which thoſe philoſophers were unacquainted, and which no ſtrength of genius could divine. But whatever ſome vain empirics in learning may pretend, the moſt learned and ingenious men, both in France and England, have acknowledged the ſuperiority of the Greek philoſophers, and have reckoned themſelves happy in catching their turn of thinking, and manner of expreſſion. But the Greeks were not leſs diſtinguiſhed for their active than for their ſpeculative talents. It would be endleſs to recount the names of their famous ſtateſmen and warriors; and it is impoſſible to mention a few without doing injuſtice to a greater number. War was firſt reduced into a ſcience by the Greeks. Their ſoldiers fought from an affection to their country, and an ardour for glory, and not from a dread of their ſuperiors. We have ſeen the effects of this military virtue in their wars againſt the Perſians; the cauſe of it was the wiſe laws which Amphictyon, Solon, and Lycurgus, had eſtabliſhed in Greece. But we muſt now leave this nation, whoſe hiſtory, both civil and philoſophical, is as important as their territory was inconſiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are ſtill more intereſting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they ſtand to thoſe of Modern Europe.

The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman ſtate, when we
B. C. view him as the leader of a few lawleſs and wandering banditti, is an
753. object of extreme inſignificance. But when we conſider him as the founder of an empire as extenſive as the world, and whoſe progreſs

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and decline have occaſioned the two greateſt revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot help being intereſted in his conduct. His diſpoſition was extremely martial; and the political ſtate of Italy, divided into a number of ſmall but independent diſtricts, afforded a noble field for the diſplay of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandiſe themſelves, but even to ſubſiſt. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may obſerve the ſame maxims by which the Romans afterwards became maſters of the world. Inſtead of deſtroying the nations he had ſubjected, he united them to the Roman ſtate, whereby Rome acquired a new acceſſion of ſtrength from every war ſhe undertook, and became powerful and populous from that very circumſtance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies, with whom he contended, had, by means of the art or arms they employed, any conſiderable advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice, or the uſe of that weapon, and improved the military ſyſtem of the Romans by the united experience of all their enemies. Of both theſe maxims, by means of which the Roman ſtate arrived at ſuch a pitch of greatneſs, we have an example in the war with the Sabines. Romulus having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, inſtantly threw aſide the latter, and made uſe of the Sabine buckler in fighting againſt other ſtates. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He inſtituted what was called the Senate, a court originally compoſed of a hundred perſons diſtinguiſhed for their wiſdom and experience. He enacted laws for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and for bridling the fierce and unruly paſſions of his followers; and, after a long reign ſpent in promoting the civil and military intereſts of his country, was, according to the moſt probable conjecture, privately aſſaſſinated by ſome of the members of that ſenate which he himſelf had inſtituted. B. C. 717.

The ſucceſſors of Romulus were all very extraordinary perſonages. Numa, who came next after him, eſtabliſhed the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inſpired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the ſoul of their military diſcipline. Tullus Hoſtilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priſcus, and Servius Tullius, laboured each, during his reign, for the greatneſs of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the ſeventh and laſt king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to ſupport it by the moſt cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the inſolence of his ſon Sextus Tarquinius, who, by diſhonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occaſioned the expulſion of the Tarquin family, and with it the diſſolution of the regal government. As the Romans, however, were continually engaged in war, they found it neceſſary to have ſome officer inveſted with ſupreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterpriſes. In the room of the kings, therefore, they appointed two annual magiſtrates, called conſuls, who, without creating the ſame jealouſy, ſucceeded to all the powers of their former ſovereigns. This reſolution was very favourable to the Roman greatneſs. The conſuls, who enjoyed but a temporary power, were deſirous of ſignaliſing their reign by ſome great action: each vied with thoſe who had gone before him, and the Romans were daily led out againſt ſome new enemy. When we add to this, that the people, naturally warlike, were inſpired to deeds of valour by every conſi-

B. C. 509.

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deration which could excite them,—that the citizens of Rome were all ſoldiers, and fought for their lands, their children, and their liberties,—we need not be ſurpriſed that they ſhould, in the courſe of ſome centuries, extend their power over all Italy.

The Romans, now ſecure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with, turned their eyes abroad, and met with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This ſtate had been founded or enlarged on the coaſt of the Mediterranean in Africa, ſome time before Rome, by a colony of Phœnicians, anno B. C. 869; and, according to the practice of their mother-country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatneſs.

Carthage, in this deſign, had proved wonderfully ſucceſsful. She now commanded both ſides of the Mediterranean. Beſides that of Africa, which ſhe almoſt entirely poſſeſſed, ſhe had extended herſelf on the Spaniſh ſide through the Straits. Thus miſtreſs of the ſea, and of commerce, ſhe had ſeized on the iſlands of Corſica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to
B. C. 264. defend itſelf; and the Romans were too nearly threatened, not to take up arms. Hence a ſucceſſion of hoſtilities between theſe rival ſtates, known in hiſtory by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians, with all their wealth and power, were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic when Rome was an inconſiderable ſtate; but ſhe was now become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political conſtitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we have already mentioned, was compoſed of ſoldiers. The firſt war with Carthage laſted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the ſea, with which they had hitherto been unacquainted. A Carthaginian veſſel
B. C. 260. was wrecked on their coaſt; they uſed it for a model; in three months fitted out a fleet; and the conſul Duilius, who fought their firſt naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpoſe to mention all the tranſactions of theſe wars. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the ſpirit which then animated this
B. C. 256. people. Being taken priſoner in Africa, he is ſent back on his parole to negotiate a change of priſoners. He maintains in the ſenate the propriety of that law which cut off from thoſe who ſuffered themſelves to be taken, all hopes of being ſaved, and returns to certain death.

Neither was Carthage, though corrupted, deficient in great men. Of all the enemies the Romans ever had to contend with, Hannibal, the Carthaginian, was the moſt inflexible and dangerous. His father, Hamilcar, had imbibed an extreme hatred againſt the Romans; and having ſettled the inteſtine troubles of his country, he took an early opportunity to inſpire his ſon, though but nine years old, with his own ſentiments. For this purpoſe he ordered a ſolemn ſacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and leading his ſon to the altar, aſked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition againſt the Romans. The courageous boy not only conſented to go, but conjured his father, by the gods preſent, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. "That I will joyfully do," replied Hamilcar, "and with all the care of a father who loves you, if you will ſwear upon the altar to be an eternal enemy to the Romans." Hannibal readily complied; and the ſolemnity of the ceremony, and the ſacredneſs of the oath, made ſuch an impreſſion on his mind, as nothing afterwards could ever efface. Being appointed general at twenty-five years of age, he croſſes the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and unexpect-
B. C. 218. edly ruſhes down upon Italy. The loſs of four battles threaten the fall of Rome. Sicily ſides with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of Syracuſe, declares againſt the Romans, and almoſt all Italy

abandons

abandons them. In this extremity, Rome owed its preservation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, despising popular clamour, and the military ardour of his countrymen, declines coming to an engagement. The strength of Rome has time to recover. Marcellus raises the siege of Nola, takes Syracuse, and revives the drooping spirits of his troops. The Romans admired the character of these great men, but saw something more divine in the young Scipio. The success of this young hero confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine extraction, and held converse with the gods. At the age of four and twenty, he flies into Spain, where both his father and uncle had lost their lives, attacks New Carthage, and carries it at the first assault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings submit to him, Carthage trembles in her turn, and sees her armies defeated. Hannibal, sixteen years victorious, is in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage is rendered tributary, gives hostages, and engages never to enter on a war, but with the consent of the Roman people. B. C. 210. B. C. 201.

After the conquest of Carthage, Rome had inconsiderable wars, but great victories; before this time its wars were great, and its victories inconsiderable. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; in the one fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by those quarrels which had lasted since the death of Alexander the Great. Their scene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the East. The states of Greece had once more disengaged themselves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Ætolians, Achæans, and Bœotians; each of these was an association of free cities, which had assemblies and magistrates in common. The Etolians were the most considerable of them all. The kings of Macedon maintained that superiority, which, in ancient times when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally possessed over his less powerful neighbours. Philip, the present monarch, had rendered himself odious to the Greeks, by some unpopular and tyrannical steps; the Ætolians were most irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their assistance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garrisons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the states of Greece became their dependents. The Ætolians discovering their first error, endeavoured to remedy it by another still more dangerous to themselves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them against king Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them against the Romans. The famous Hannibal too had recourse to the same prince, who was at this time the most powerful monarch in the East, and the successor to the dominions of Alexander in Asia. But Antiochus did not follow his advice so much as that of the Ætolians; for, instead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be the most vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a small body of troops, and being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Asia. In this war the Romans made use of Philip for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Ætolians for conquering Philip. They now pursue Antiochus, the last object of their resentment, into Asia, and having vanquished him by sea and land, compel him to submit to a disgraceful treaty. B. C. 190.

In these conquests the Romans still allowed the ancient inhabitants to possess their territory; they did not even change the form of government; the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people; which denomination,

nomination, however, under a ſpecious name, concealed a condition very ſervile, and inferred that they ſhould ſubmit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on thoſe eaſy conqueſts, we have reaſon to be aſtoniſhed at the reſiſtance which the Romans met with from Mithridates, king of Pontus, for the ſpace of twenty-ſix years. But this monarch had great reſources. His kingdom, bordering on the inacceſſible mountains of Caucaſus, abounded in a race of men whoſe minds were not enervated by pleaſure, and whoſe bodies were firm and vigorous; and he gave the Romans more trouble than even Hannibal.

The different ſtates of Greece and Aſia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not the ſpirit to ſhake it off, were tranſported at finding a prince who dared to ſhow himſelf an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully ſubmitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, was at laſt compelled to yield to the ſuperior fortune of the Romans. Vanquiſhed ſucceſſively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length ſubdued by Pompey, and ſtripped of his dominions and of his life, in the year B. C. 63.

B. C. 106. In Africa, the Roman arms met with equal ſucceſs. Marius, in conquering Jugurtha, made all ſecure in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gallia Narbonenſis had been reduced into a province. The Cimbri, Teutones, and the other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The ſame Marius, whoſe name was

B. C. 102. ſo terrible in Africa, then made the north of Europe to tremble. The barbarians retired to their wilds and deſerts, leſs formidable than the Roman legions. But while Rome conquered the world, there ſubſiſted an inceſſant war within her walls. This war had ſubſiſted from the firſt period of the government. Rome, after the expulſion of her kings, enjoyed but a partial liberty. The deſcendents of the ſenators, who were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Patricians, were inveſted with ſo many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependence, and became determined to ſhake it off. A thouſand diſputes on the ſubject aroſe betwixt them and the patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty.

Theſe diſputes, while the Romans preſerved their virtue, were not attended with any dangerous conſequences. The patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully parted with ſome of their privileges to ſatisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws by which they might be admitted to enjoy the firſt offices of the ſtate, and though they had the power of nomination, always named patricians. But when the Romans, by the conqueſt of foreign nations, became acquainted with all their luxuries and refinements,—when they became tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eaſtern courts, and ſported with every thing juſt and honourable in order to obtain them, —the ſtate, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either ſide to keep it together, became a prey to its own children. Hence the bloody ſeditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguiſhable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it eaſy for any turbulent demagogue to put them in action againſt each other. The love of their country was now no more than a ſpecious name: the better ſort were too wealthy and effeminate to ſubmit to the rigours of military diſcipline; and the ſoldiers, compoſed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They had little reſpect for any but their commander; under his banner they fought, and conquered, and plundered; and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to embrue their hands in the blood of their country. They who knew no

country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conqueſts, however, which required their keeping on foot ſeveral armies at the ſame time, retarded the ſubverſion of the republic. Theſe armies were ſo many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the ſole of Sylla, Rome would have ſurrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

Julius Cæſar at length appears. By ſubduing the Gauls, he gained his country the moſt uſeful conqueſt it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, is overcome in the plains of Pharſalia. Cæſar appears victorious almoſt at the ſame time all over the world: in Egypt, in Aſia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain: conqueror on all ſides, he is acknowledged maſter at Rome, and in the whole empire. Brutus and Caſſius think to give Rome her liberty by ſtabbing him in the ſenate-houſe. But though they thereby deliver the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic does not obtain its freedom. It falls into the hands of Mark Antony; young Cæſar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Cæſar, wreſts it from him by the ſea-fight at Actium, and there is no Brutus or Caſſius to put an end to his life. Thoſe friends of liberty had killed themſelves in deſpair; and Octavius, under the name of Auguſtus, and title of emperor, remained the undiſturbed maſter of the empire. During theſe civil commotions, the Romans ſtill preſerved the glory of their arms among diſtant nations; and, while it was unknown who ſhould be maſter of Rome, the Romans were, without diſpute, the maſters of the world. Their military diſcipline and valour aboliſhed all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Perſian, the Greek, the Aſſyrian, and Macedonian glory; they were now only a name. No ſooner, therefore, was Octavius eſtabliſhed on the throne than ambaſſadors from all quarters of the known world crowd to make their ſubmiſſions. Æthiopia ſues for peace; the Parthians, who had been a moſt formidable enemy, court his friendſhip; India ſeeks his alliance; Pannonia acknowledges him; Germany dreads him; and the Weſer receives his laws. Victorious by ſea and land, he ſhuts the temple of Janus. The whole earth lives in peace under his power, and Jeſus Chriſt comes into the world four years before the common æra.

B. C. 48.

B. C. 44.

B. C. 31.

B. C. 7.

Having thus traced the progreſs of the Roman government while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to ſay a few words with regard to the arts, ſciences, and manners of that people. During the firſt ages of the republic, the Romans lived in a total neglect or rather contempt of all the elegant improvements of life. War, politics, and agriculture, were the only arts they ſtudied, becauſe they were the only arts they eſteemed. But upon the downfal of Carthage, the Romans, having no enemy to dread from abroad, began to taſte the ſweets of ſecurity, and to cultivate the arts. Their progreſs, however, was not gradual, as in the other countries we have deſcribed. The conqueſt of Greece at once put them in poſſeſſion of every thing moſt rare, curious, or elegant. Aſia, which was the next victim, offered all its ſtores; and the Romans, from the moſt ſimple people, ſpeedily became acquainted with the arts, the luxuries, and refinements of the whole earth. Eloquence they had always cultivated as the high road to eminence and preferment. The orations of Cicero are inferior only to thoſe of Demoſthenes. In poetry, Virgil yields only to Homer, whoſe verſe, like the proſe of Demoſthenes, may be conſidered as inimitable. Horace, however, in his Satires and Epiſtles, had no model among the Greeks, and ſtands to this day unrivalled in that ſpecies of writing. In hiſtory, the Romans can boaſt of Livy, who poſſeſſes all the natural eaſe of Herodotus, and is more deſcriptive, more eloquent,

and ſentimental. Tacitus indeed did not flouriſh in the Auguſtan age; but his works do himſelf the greateſt honour, while they diſgrace his country and human nature, whoſe corruption and vices he paints in the moſt ſtriking colours. In philoſophy, if we except the works of Cicero, and the ſyſtem of the Greek philoſopher Epicurus, deſcribed in the nervous poetry of Lucretius, the Romans, during the time of the republic, made not the leaſt attempt. In tragedy they never produced any thing excellent; and Terence, though remarkable for purity of ſtyle, wants that *comica vis*, or lively vein of humour, that diſtinguiſhes the writings of the Greek comedians and thoſe of our immortal Shakeſpeare.

We now return to our hiſtory, and are arrived at an æra which preſents us with a ſet of monſters, under the name of emperors, whoſe hiſtories, a few excepted, diſgrace human nature. They did not indeed aboliſh the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguiſhed its liberties; and while they were practiſing the moſt unwarrantable cruelties upon their ſubjects, they themſelves were the ſlaves of their ſoldiers. They made the world tremble, while they in their turn trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Auguſtus, became the moſt deſpotic empire that ever ſubſiſted in Europe. To form an idea of their government, we need only to recall to our mind the ſituation of Turkey at preſent. It is of no importance therefore to conſider the characters of the emperors, ſince they had no power but what aroſe from a mercenary ſtanding army; nor to enter into a detail with regard to the tranſactions of the court, which were directed by that caprice, cruelty, and corruption, which univerſally prevail under a deſpotic government. When it is ſaid that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civiliſed part of it, chiefly in Greece, Carthage, and Aſia. A more difficult taſk ſtill remained for the emperors, to ſubdue the barbarous nations of Europe,—the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote corner of Scotland; for though theſe countries had been diſcovered, they were not effectually ſubdued by the Roman generals. Theſe nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the ſuperiority of their diſcipline than of their courage that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars with the Germans are deſcribed by Tacitus; and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is eaſy to diſcover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they ſubmitted to a foreign yoke. From the obſtinate reſiſtance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in ſubduing the other nations of Europe. The conteſts were bloody; the countries of Europe were ſucceſſively laid waſte; numbers of the inhabitants periſhed in the field, many were carried into ſlavery, and but a feeble remnant ſubmitted to the Roman power. This ſituation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happineſs of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourſe with the Romans, acquired ſome taſte for the arts, ſciences, language, and manners of their new maſters. Theſe, however, were but miſerable conſolations for the loſs of liberty, for being deprived of the uſe of arms, for being overawed by mercenary ſoldiers kept in pay to reſtrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy. The only circumſtance which could ſupport them under theſe complicated calamities, was the hope of ſeeing better days.

The Roman empire, now ſtretched out to ſuch an extent, had loſt its ſpring and force. It contained within itſelf the ſeeds of diſſolution; and the violent irruptions of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, haſtened its deſtruction. Theſe fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance

on the empire, either inhabited the various parts of Germany which had never been ſubdued by the Romans, or were ſcattered over the vaſt countries of the north of Europe, and the north weſt of Aſia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country by that reſtleſſneſs which actuates the minds of barbarians, and makes them rove from home in queſt of plunder or new ſettlements. The firſt invaders met with a powerful reſiſtance from the ſuperior diſcipline of the Roman legions; but this, inſtead of daunting men of a ſtrong and impetuous temper, only rouſed them to vengeance. They returned to their companions, acquainted them with the unknown conveniences and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or bleſſed with a milder climate than their own,—they acquainted them with the battles they had fought, or the friends they had loſt, and warmed them with reſentment againſt their opponents. Great bodies of armed men (ſays an elegant hiſtorian, in deſcribing this ſcene of deſolation), with their wives and children, and ſlaves and flocks, iſſued forth, like regular colonies, in queſt of new ſettlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deſerted were occupied by more remote tribes of barbarians. Theſe in their turn puſhed forward into more fertile countries, and, like a torrent continually increaſing, rolled on, and ſwept every thing before them. Wherever the barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or deſtroyed all around them. They made no diſtinction between what was ſacred and what was profane. They reſpected no age, or ſex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period in the hiſtory of the world, during which the condition of the human race was the moſt calamitous and afflicted, he would, without heſitation, name that which elapſed from the death of Theodoſius the Great, A. D. 395, to the eſtabliſhment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The cotemporary authors, who beheld that ſcene of deſolation, labour and are at a loſs for expreſſions to deſcribe the horrors of it. *The ſcourge of God, the deſtroyer of nations*, are the dreadful epithets by which they diſtinguiſh the moſt noted of the barbarous leaders.

Conſtantine, who was emperor at the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced chriſtianity, changed the ſeat of empire from Rome to Conſtantinople. This occaſioned a prodigious alteration. The weſtern and eaſtern provinces were ſeparated from each other, and governed by different ſovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the eaſt, threw down the weſtern barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders. A. D. 328.

Rome (now known by the name of the *Weſtern Empire*, in contradiſtinction to Conſtantinople, which, from its ſituation, was called the *Eaſtern Empire*), weakened by this diviſion, becomes a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, is effaced; and Odoacer, a barbarian chieftain, is ſeated on the throne of the Cæſars. Theſe irruptions into the empire were gradual and ſucceſſive. The immenſe fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages; and ſeveral centuries were employed in demoliſhing it. The ancient diſcipline of the Romans in military affairs was ſo efficacious, that the remains of it deſcended to their ſucceſſors, and muſt have proved an overmatch for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the univerſal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loſs to find new provocatives. The moſt diſtant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exerciſed, and the tribute of provinces expended A. D. 476.

upon one favourite diſh. The tyranny and the univerſal depravation of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or, as they are called, Cæſars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of thoſe nations who overcame them.

Towards the cloſe of the ſixth century, the Saxons, a German nation, were maſters of the ſouthern and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks, another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths, of Spain; the Goths and Lombards, of Italy and the adjacent provinces. Scarcely any veſtige of the Roman policy, juriſprudence, arts, or literature, remained. New forms of government, new laws, new manners, new dreſſes, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were every where introduced.

From this period, till the 16th century, Europe exhibited a picture of moſt melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, ſcience, taſte, were words ſcarcely in uſe during theſe ages. Perſons of the higheſt rank, and in the moſt eminent ſtations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not underſtand the Breviary which they were obliged daily to recite; ſome of them could ſcarcely read it. The human mind, neglected, uncultivated, and depreſſed, ſunk into the moſt profound ignorance. The ſuperior genius of Charlemagne, who, in the beginning of the ninth century, governed France and Germany, with part of Italy,—and Alfred the Great in England, during the latter part of the ſame century,—endeavoured to diſpel this darkneſs, and give their ſubjects a ſhort glimpſe of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and inſtitutions. The darkneſs returned, and even increaſed; ſo that a ſtill greater degree of ignorance and barbariſm prevailed throughout Europe.

A new diviſion of property gradually intoduced a new ſpecies of government, formerly unknown; which ſingular inſtitution is now diſtinguiſhed by the name of the *Feudal Syſtem*. The king or general who led the barbarians to conqueſt, parcelled out the lands of the vanquiſhed among his chief officers, binding thoſe on whom they were beſtowed to follow his ſtandard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. The chief officers imitated the example of the ſovereign, and, in diſtributing portions of their lands among their dependents, annexed the ſame condition to the grant. But though this ſyſtem ſeemed to be admirably calculated for defence againſt a foreign enemy, it degenerated into a ſyſtem of oppreſſion.

The uſurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a ſtate of actual ſervitude. They were deprived of the natural and moſt unalienable rights of humanity. They were ſlaves fixed to the ſoil which they cultivated, and together with it were transferred from one proprietor to another, by ſale or by conveyance. Every offended baron or chieftain buckled on his armour, and ſought redreſs at the head of his vaſſals. His adverſaries met him in like hoſtile array. The kindred and dependents of the aggreſſor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter *.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. In order to create ſome power that might counterbalance thoſe potent vaſſals, who, while they enſlaved the people, controlled or gave laws to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privi-

* This Gothic ſyſtem ſtill prevails in Poland: a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland ſo late as the year 1748. And even in England, a country renowned for civil and religious liberty, ſome relics of theſe Gothic inſtitutions are perceivable at this day.

leges on towns. Theſe privileges aboliſhed all marks of ſervitude; and the inhabitants of towns were formed into corporations, or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magiſtrates of their own nomination.

The acquiſition of liberty made ſuch a happy change in the condition of mankind, as rouſed them from the ſtupidity and inaction into which they had been ſunk by the wretchedneſs of their former ſtate. A ſpirit of induſtry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flouriſh.

Various cauſes contributed to revive this ſpirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourſe between different nations. Conſtantinople, the capital of the Eaſtern or Greek empire, had eſcaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the Weſt. In this city, ſome remains of literature and ſcience were preſerved: this, too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade, and where ſome reliſh for the precious commodities and curious manufactures of India was retained. They communicated ſome knowledge of theſe to their neighbours in Italy; and the cruſades, which were begun by the Chriſtian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Saracens from Jeruſalem, opened a communication between Europe and the Eaſt. Conſtantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Chriſtian armies, in their way to Paleſtine, or on their return from thence. Though the object of theſe expeditions was conqueſt, and not commerce, and though the iſſue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent. A. D. 1096.

Soon after the cloſe of the holy war, the mariner's compaſs was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations, and brought them nearer to each other. The Italian ſtates, particularly thoſe of Venice and Genoa, began to eſtabliſh a regular commerce with the Eaſt and the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. Theſe commodities they diſpoſed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire ſome taſte of elegance unknown to their predeceſſors, or deſpiſed by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries, the commerce of Europe was almoſt entirely in the hands of the Italians, more commonly known in thoſe ages by the name of Lombards. Companies or ſocieties of Lombard merchants ſettled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of the companies ſettled in London; and thence the name of Lombard-ſtreet was derived. A. D. 1302.

While the Italians in the ſouth of Europe cultivated trade with ſuch induſtry and ſucceſs, the commercial ſpirit awakened in the north towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations round the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infeſted that ſea with their piracies, this obliged the cities of Lubec and Hamburg, ſoon after they had begun to open ſome trade with the Italians, to enter into a league of mutual defence. They derived ſuch advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a ſhort time, eighty of the moſt conſiderable cities, ſcattered through thoſe large countries of Germany and Flanders which ſtretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the *Hanſeatic League*, which became ſo formidable, that its alliance was courted, and its enmity was dreaded by the greateſt monarchs. The members of this powerful aſſociation formed the firſt ſyſtematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general aſſemblies. They ſupplied the reſt of Europe with naval forces, and pitched on different towns, the moſt eminent

of which was Bruges in Flanders, where they eſtabliſhed ſtaples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky but not leſs uſeful commodities of the North.

As Bruges became the centre of communication between the Lombards and Hanſeatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to ſuch extent as well as advantage, as diffuſed among them a general habit of induſtry, which long rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the moſt opulent, the moſt populous, and beſt cultivated countries in Europe.

Struck with the flouriſhing ſtate of theſe provinces, of which he diſcovered the true cauſe, Edward III. of England endeavoured to excite a ſpirit of induſtry among his own ſubjects, who, blind to the advantages of their ſituation, and ignorant of the ſource from which opulence was deſtined to flow into their country, totally neglected commerce, and did not even attempt thoſe manufactures, the materials of which they furniſhed to foreigners. By alluring Flemiſh artiſans to ſettle in his dominions, as well as by many wiſe laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufacture of England, and firſt turned the active and enterpriſing genius of his people towards thoſe arts which have raiſed the Engliſh to the firſt rank among commercial nations.

A. D. 1330.

The Chriſtian princes, after their great loſſes in the cruſades, endeavoured to cultivate the friendſhip of the great khans of Tartary, whoſe fame in arms had reached the moſt remote corners of Europe and Aſia, that they might be ſome check upon the Turks, who had been ſuch enemies to the Chriſtian name, and who, from a contemptible handful of wanderers ſerving occaſionally in the armies of contending princes, had begun to extend their ravages over the fineſt countries of Aſia.

The Chriſtian embaſſies were managed chiefly by monks, an active and enterpriſing ſet of men, who, impelled by zeal and undaunted by difficulties and danger, penetrated to the remote courts of thoſe infidels. The Engliſh philoſopher, Roger Bacon, was ſo induſtrious as to collect from their relations and traditions many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrim, and other books of travels. The firſt regular traveller of the monkiſh kind, who committed his diſcoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who, with ſome of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favour of the Chriſtian ſubjects in that prince's extenſive dominions. Soon after this, a ſpirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general: and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, ſerved in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greateſt princes of Tartary, whoſe conqueſts reached to the remoteſt corners of India; and that they introduced into Europe the uſe of gunpowder and artillery; the diſcovery made by a German chemiſt being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the riſing power of the Turks, had checked their progreſs, the Chriſtian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vaſt riches of the Eaſt Indies, inſpired their countrymen with a ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery, and were the firſt that rendered probable the practicability of a paſſage thither by ſea. The Portugueſe had been always famous for their application to maritime affairs; and to their diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope, Great Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce.

A. D. 1405.

At firſt they contented themſelves with ſhort voyages, creeping along the

the coaſt of Africa, diſcovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progreſs ſouthward, they, in the year 1497, were ſo fortunate as to ſail beyond the Cape, which opened a paſſage by ſea to the eaſtern ocean, and all thoſe countries known by the names of India, China, and Japan.

While the Portugueſe were intent upon a paſſage to India by the eaſt, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of ſailing thither by the weſt. His propoſal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and abſurd, he laid his ſcheme ſucceſſively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better ſucceſs. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expenſe, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only reſource; and there, after eight years' attendance, he at length ſucceeded, through the intereſt of queen Iſabella. This princeſs was prevailed upon to patroniſe him, by the repreſentation of Juan Perez, guardian of the monaſtery of Rabida. He was a man of conſiderable learning, and of ſome credit with queen Iſabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his perſonal acquaintance with him, and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in conjunction with a phyſician ſettled in his neighbourhood, who was eminent for his ſkill in mathematical knowledge. This inveſtigation completely ſatisfied them of the ſolidity of the principles on which Columbus founded his opinion, and of the probability of ſucceſs in executing the plan which he propoſed; Perez, therefore, ſo ſtrongly recommended it to queen Iſabella, that ſhe warmly entered into the ſcheme, and even generouſly offered, to the honour of her ſex, to pledge her own jewels in order to raiſe as much money as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santangel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the ſum that was requiſite, that the queen might not be reduced to the neceſſity of having recourſe to that expedient.

Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon one of the moſt adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted. In this voyage he had a thouſand difficulties to contend with; and his ſailors, who were often diſcontented, at length began to inſiſt upon his return, threatening, in caſe of refuſal, to throw him overboard; but the firmneſs of the commander, and the diſcovery of land, after a paſſage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found to his ſurpriſe that this could not be the Indies he was in queſt of, and that he had accidentally diſcovered a new world,—of which the reader will find a more circumſtantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkneſs into which ſhe had been ſunk ſince the ſubverſion of the Roman empire. Theſe diſcoveries, from which ſuch wealth was deſtined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were ſucceeded by others of unſpeakable benefit to mankind. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and ſciences, and, laſtly, the happy reformation in religion, all diſtinguiſh the 15th and 16th centuries as the firſt æra of modern hiſtory. It was in theſe ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political ſyſtem, in which each took a ſtation, wherein it has ſince remained, with leſs variation than could have been expected after the ſhocks occaſioned by ſo many internal revolutions, and ſo many foreign wars, of which we ſhall give ſome account in the hiſtory of each particular ſtate, in the following work. The great events which happened then have

A. D. 1440.

not hitherto ſpent their force. The political principles and maxims then eſtabliſhed, ſtill continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power, then introduced or rendered general, ſtill influence, in ſome degree, the councils of European nations.

From all which it ſeems extremely certain that the concurrence of ſo many rival princes will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. But it is no leſs certain, that, in contending for it, they muſt weaken their own force, and may at length render themſelves incapable of defending even their juſt poſſeſſions. The partial conqueſts they may make are extremely illuſive; inſtead of promoting, they rather oppoſe their deſigns: the more any kingdom is extended, it becomes the weaker; and great projects have not been ſo often executed by ſlow reiterated efforts, as in the courſe of a few years, and ſometimes by a ſingle expedition. A prince may form a deliberate plan of deſtroying the rights of his ſubjects: he may proceed by ſlow degrees in the execution of it; and if he die before it is completed, his ſucceſſor may purſue the ſame ſteps, and avail himſelf of what was done before him. But external conqueſts cannot be concealed; they generally occaſion more fear than hurt, and are almoſt always leſs ſolid than brilliant. Hence the alarms they excite, the confederacies they give occaſion to, by which the prince, who by misfortune has been a conqueror, is commonly reduced to the laſt extremities. This doctrine, however contrary to the prejudices of a powerful and victorious nation, is one of the beſt eſtabliſhed in the ſcience of politics. It is confirmed by examples both ancient and modern. The ſtates of Greece in particular, delivered from the terror of the Perſian invaſions, exhibit the ſame truth in a great variety of lights. There was not one of the moſt inconſiderable of thoſe little ſocieties, but in its turn imbibed the phrenſy of conqueſt, and in its turn too was reduced by this phrenſy to the utmoſt miſery and diſtreſs *. The modern examples are ſo well known that it is almoſt unneceſſary to mention them. Who does not know that the houſe of Auſtria † excited the terror of all Europe, before it excited the pity of Great Britain? Had that family never been the object of fear, the empreſs queen would never have become the object of compaſſion. France affords an example not leſs ſtriking. The nerves of that kingdom were ſtrained ſo far beyond their ſtrength, by an ambitious monarch, that it ſeemed hardly poſſible they ſhould acquire their natural tone in the courſe of this century. The debility of their efforts in the war of 1756 proved the greatneſs of the evil, and the inefficacy of any remedy which is not ſlow and gradual.

Of all the kingdoms of Europe, Great Britain for a long time enjoyed the greateſt degree of proſperity and glory. She ought, therefore, to have been the more attentive to preſerve ſo brilliant a pre-eminence. A great em-

* The reader who would ſee this ſubject fully illuſtrated, may look at Iſocrates' Oration on the Peace,—one of the moſt finiſhed models of ancient eloquence, and which contains a rich fund of political knowledge.

† Germany, Holland, and all the Low Countries, ſeveral ſtates in Italy, the kingdom of Spain, together with the vaſt empires of Mexico and Peru in America, were, at the time of the reformation, governed by Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria: territories which, though exceeding in riches and extent the moſt powerful empires of antiquity, did not gratify the ambition of that monarch; and his whole reign was a ſcene of hoſtility againſt his neighbours. One of his ſucceſſors, the late empreſs queen, and the repreſentative of that family, was, however, upon the death of her father, not only ſtripped of her dominions, but reduced ſo low as to be even in want of neceſſaries; and contributions were actually raiſed for her in Great Britain, whoſe king, George II. engaged in her cauſe, and at the expenſe of this nation reinſtated her upon the imperial throne.

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pire cannot be continued in a happy ſituation, but by wiſdom and moderation. Every attempt to extend her dominions muſt be attended with two infallible conſequences,—the firſt to alarm her neighbours,—the ſecond, to augment her armies. The augmentation of armies may, in time, endanger our conſtitution; and the farther our conqueſts are removed from home, this danger becomes the greater, as thoſe armies will ſoon, by living in a diſtant climate, loſe all affection for their native country. Without entering into the labyrinth of political diſputes, it will be acknowledged that the unhappy conteſt of Great Britain with the American colonies has plunged her into difficulties; her national debt has been augmented to a prodigious height, and her taxes greatly increaſed.

PART III.

OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

DEITY is an awful object, and has ever roufed the attention of mankind; but they being incapable of elevating their ideas to all the ſublimity of his perfections, have too often brought down his perfections to the level of their own ideas. This is more particularly true with regard to thoſe nations whoſe religion had no other foundation but the natural feelings, and more often the irregular paſſions, of the human heart, and who had received no light from heaven reſpecting this important object. In deducing the hiſtory of religion, therefore, we muſt make the ſame diſtinction which we have hitherto obſerved in tracing the progreſs of arts, ſciences, and civiliſation among mankind. We muſt ſeparate what is human from what is divine,—what had its origin from particular revelations, from what is the effect of general laws, and of the unaſſiſted operations of the human mind.

Agreeably to this diſtinction, we find, that, in the firſt ages of the world, the religion of the eaſtern nations was pure and luminous. It aroſe from a divine ſource, and was not then diſfigured by human fancies or caprice. In time, however, theſe began to have their influence; the ray of tradition was obſcured; and among thoſe tribes which ſeparated at the greateſt diſtance, and in the ſmalleſt numbers, from the more improved ſocieties of men, it was altogether obliterated.

In this ſituation a particular people were ſelected by God himſelf, to be the depoſitaries of his law and worſhip; but the reſt of mankind were left to form hypotheſes upon theſe ſubjects, which were more or leſs perfect, according to an infinity of circumſtances which cannot properly be reduced under any general heads.

The moſt common religion of antiquity,—that which prevailed the longeſt, and extended the wideſt,—was POLYTHEISM, or the doctrine of a plurality of gods. The rage of ſyſtem, the ambition of reducing all the phænomena of the moral world to a few general principles, has occaſioned many imperfect accounts, both of the origin and nature of this ſpecies of worſhip. For, without entering into a minute detail, it is impoſſible to give an adequate idea of the ſubject: and what is ſaid upon it in general, muſt always be liable to many exceptions.

One thing, however, may be obſerved, that the polytheiſm of the ancients ſeems neither to have been the fruit of philoſophical ſpeculations, nor

nor of disfigured traditions concerning the nature of the Divinity. It seems to have arisen during the rudest ages of society, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and passion. It was built, therefore, solely upon sentiment. As each tribe of men had their heroes, so likewise they had their gods. Those heroes who led them forth to combat, who presided in their councils, whose image was engraved on their fancy, whose exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an existence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendship, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot easily conceive: but the power of imagination over the senses is what all men have in some degree experienced. Combine these two causes, and it will not appear strange that the image of departed heroes should have been seen by their companions animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the same functions which they performed when alive. An appearance so unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil spirits, and who had not learned to fear any thing but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity; and the testimony of those who had seen it, supported by the extreme credulity and romantic cast of those who had not, gained an universal assent among all the members of their society. A small degree of reflection, however, would be sufficient to convince them, that, as their own heroes existed after death, the same might also be the case with those of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be established,—the propitious and the hostile,—the gods who were to be loved, and those who were to be feared. But time, which wears off the impressions of tradition, and the frequent invasions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, desolated, or transplanted, made them lose the names and confound the characters of those two orders of divinities, and form various systems of religion, which, though warped by a thousand particular circumstances, gave no small indications of their first texture and original materials. For, in general, the gods of the ancients gave abundant proof of human infirmity. They were subject to all the passions of men; they partook even of their partial affections, and in many instances discovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the same substances with men; but they lived on nectar and ambrosia; they had a particular pleasure in smelling the steam of the sacrifices, and they made love with an ardour unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worshipped, naturally resulted from their character. The most enlightened among the Greeks entertained nearly the same notions of gods and religion, as those that are to be met with in the poems of Hesiod and Homer; and Anaxagoras, who flourished B. C. 430 years, was the first, even in Greece, that publicly announced the existence of one Creator and Governor of the universe.

It must be observed, however, that the religion of the ancients was not much connected either with their private behaviour or with their political arrangements. If we except a few fanatical societies whose principles do not fall within our plan, the greater part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined, also had theirs; and there was room enough in the universe for both to live together in good fellowship, without interfering or jostling with one another.

The introduction of christianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, and by explaining the service he

requires

requires of men, produced a total alteration in their religious ſentiments and belief. But this is not the place for handling this ſublime ſubject. It is ſufficient to obſerve here, that a religion which was founded on the unity of the Deity, which admitted of no aſſociation with falſe gods, muſt either be altogether deſtroyed, or become the prevailing belief of mankind. The latter was the caſe. Chriſtianity made its way among the civiliſed part of mankind, by the ſublimity of its doctrine and precepts; it required not the aid of human power; it ſuſtained itſelf by the truth and wiſdom by which it was characteriſed. But in time it became corrupted by the introduction of worldly maxims, of maxims very inconſiſtent with the precepts of its divine author, and by the ambition of the clergy.

The management of whatever related to the church being naturally conferred on thoſe who had eſtabliſhed it, firſt occaſioned the elevation and then the domination of the clergy, and the exorbitant claims of the biſhop of Rome over all the members of the Chriſtian world. It is impoſſible to deſcribe, within our narrow limits, all the concomitant cauſes, ſome of which were extremely delicate, by which this ſpecies of univerſal monarchy was eſtabliſhed. The biſhops of Rome, by being removed from the control of the Roman emperors then reſiding in Conſtantinople,—by borrowing, with little variation, the religious ceremonies and rites eſtabliſhed among the heathen world, and otherwiſe working on the credulous minds of barbarians, by whom that empire began to be diſmembered,—and by availing themſelves of every circumſtance which fortune threw in their way,—ſlowly erected the fabric of their antichriſtian power, at firſt an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror, to all temporal princes. The cauſes of its happy diſſolution are more palpable, and operated with greater activity. The moſt efficacious were the invention of printing, the rapid improvement of arts, government, and commerce, which, after many ages of barbarity, made their way into Europe. The ſcandalous lives of thoſe who called themſelves the "*miniſters of Jeſus Chriſt*,' their ignorance and tyranny, the deſire natural to ſovereigns of delivering themſelves from a foreign yoke, the opportunity of applying to national objects the immenſe wealth which had been diverted to the ſervice of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conſpired with the ardour of the firſt reformers, and haſtened the progreſs of the reformation. The unreaſonableneſs of the claims of the church of Rome was demonſtrated; many of her doctrines were proved to be equally unſcriptural and irrational; and ſome of her abſurd mummeries and ſuperſtitions were expoſed both by argument and ridicule. The ſervices of the reformers in this reſpect give them a juſt claim to our veneration; but, involved as they had themſelves been in the darkneſs of ſuperſtition, it was not to be expected that they ſhould be able wholly to free themſelves from errors; they ſtill retained an attachment to ſome abſurd doctrines, and preſerved too much of the intolerant ſpirit of the church from which they had ſeparated themſelves. With all their defects, they are entitled to our admiration and eſteem; and the reformation, begun by Luther in Germany, in the year 1517, and which took place in England A D. 1534, was an event highly favourable to the civil as well as to the religious rights of mankind.

We ſhall now proceed to the main part of our work, beginning with EUROPE.

EUROPE.

EUROPE.

EUROPE, though the leaſt extenſive quarter of the globe (containing, according to Zimmerman *, 2,627,574 ſquare miles, whereas the habitable parts of the world, in the other quarters, are eſtimated at 36,666,806 ſquare miles), is, in many reſpects, that which moſt deſerves our attention. Here the human mind has made the greateſt progreſs towards improvement; and here the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the ſciences both military and civil, have been carried to the greateſt perfection. If we except the earlieſt ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greateſt variety of character, government, and manners, and from whence we draw the greateſt number of facts and memorials, either for our entertainment or inſtruction.

Geography diſcovers to us two circumſtances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a conſiderable tendency in giving it the ſuperiority over the reſt of the world,—firſt, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone,—and ſecondly, the great variety of its ſurface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immenſe number of mountains, rivers, ſeas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from one another, is likewiſe extremely commodious for its inhabitants. Theſe natural boundaries check the progreſs of conqueſt or deſpotiſm, which has always been ſo rapid in the extenſive plains of Africa and the Eaſt: the ſeas and rivers facilitate the intercourſe and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human induſtry and invention, than the natural unſolicited luxuriancy of more fertile ſoils. There is no part of Europe ſo diverſified in its ſurface, ſo interrupted by natural boundaries or diviſions, as Greece: and we have ſeen that it was there the human mind began to know and to avail itſelf of its ſtrength, and that many of the arts, ſubſervient to utility or pleaſure, were invented or at leaſt greatly improved. What Greece therefore is with regard to Europe, Europe itſelf is with regard to the reſt of the globe. The analogy may even be carried farther; and it is worth while to attend to it. As ancient Greece (for we do not ſpeak of Greece as it is at preſent, under the domination of Turks and unnatural tyranny of Barbarians) was diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt of Europe for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political conſtitution,—ſo has Europe in general been remarkable for ſmaller deviations, at leaſt from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world. Though moſt of the European governments are monarchical, we may diſcover, on due examination, that there are a thouſand little ſprings, which check the force and ſoften the rigour of monarchy in Europe, that do not exiſt any where elſe. In proportion to the number and force of theſe checks, the monarchies of Europe, ſuch as Ruſſia, France, Spain, and Denmark, differ from one another. Beſides *monarchies*, in which one man bears the chief ſway, there are in Europe *ariſtocracies* or governments of the nobles, and *democracies* or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the former; Holland, Switzerland, and ſome ſtates of Italy, afford examples of the latter. There are likewiſe mixed governments, which cannot be aſſigned to any one claſs. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three, is the moſt ſingular inſtance of this kind we are acquainted with. The other mixed governments of Europe are compoſed only of two of the ſimple forms, ſuch as Poland, and ſeveral ſtates of Italy; all which ſhall be explained at length in their proper places.

* See Zimmerman's Political Survey of Europe, p. 5.

The

Plate III.


NORTHERN
OCEAN
ICELAND
Arctic Circle
BRITISH
ISLANDS
OCEAN
BRITANNIA
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
BISCAY
BAY
FRANCE
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
SWITZERLAND
MEDITERRANEAN
AFRICA
North Cape
Lofoden Ile
Shetland Iles
Orkney Isles
Western Isles
Faroe Isles
Cape Stat
Berge
Dublin
Bristol
London
English Channel
Paris
Rochefort
Rochelle
Poitiers
Dijon
Lyons
Turin
Venice
Florence
Berlin
Rome
Naples
Corsica
Sardinia
Minorca
Majorca
Palermo
Lipari Is
SICILY
Malta I.
Gibraltar
Tangier
Tetuan
Ceuta
Melilla
Algiers
Oran
Tunis
Fez
Morocco
Gabes
Sallee
Lisbon
Madrid
Toledo
Cadiz
Malaga
Carthagena
Barcelona
Bilboa
Pampelona
Burgos
Valladolid
Saragossa
Tortosa
Valencia
Oviedo
Leon
Vigo
Ferro
C. Finisterre
Bayonne
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Orleans
Tours
Nantes
Loire R.
Garonne R.
Tagus R.
Leiria
Badajos
Cordova
Seville
Granada
Murcia
Jaen
C. de Gata
C. St Vincent
St. of Gibraltar
Lagos
Cape Spartel
Mazagan
Salle
Fez
Oran
Algiers
Tunis
Gabes
Melilla
Morocco
60
55
50
45
40
35
30
5
0
5
10
15

EUROPE
from the beſt
AUTHORITIES.

Ruſſell del.et ſculp.

NORTHERN OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ASIA
AFRICA
EUROPE
Arctic Circle
North Cape
Iceland
Faroe Iſles
Shetland Iſles
Orkney Iſles
Weſtern Iſles
Scotland
BRITISH SEA
IRELAND
Sweden
Norway
Finland
Gulf of Bothnia
Denmark
Stockholm
Petersburg
Ladoga L.
Onega L.
Archangel
Kola
Lapland
White Sea
Ruſſia
Moſcow
Kazan
Aſtrachan
Caſpian Sea
Black Sea
Tartary
Aſoph
Crimea
Poland
Warſaw
Cracow
Lemberg
Kiow
Smolenſko
Mohilow
Robaczow
Minſka
Novogorod
Pereſlow
Tver
Torzok
Woldimerow
Nitney Novogorod
Kaſtroma
Wologda
Vologda
Kargopol
Onega
Archangel
Pinega
Mezen
Kem
Soma
Kandalax
Polina
Kola
Lulea
Uiea
Torneo
Waſa
Gefle
Upſal
Stockholm
Revel
Narva
Nyslot
Norogrod Weliki
Ladoga
Biela
Tuloa
Kaigorod
Yarenſk
Solikamskaja
Oſa
Kama R.
Wolga R.
Don R.
Sinbirſk
Penza
Syzran
Saratof
Woronish
Borisoglebsk
Pereſlowſk
Bidgorod
Kyrik
Tula
Kaluga
Smolenſko
Mohilow
Robaczow
Minſka
Brzeſc
Grodno
Bialyſtok
Thorn
Dantzick
Konigſberg
Memel
Mitau
Riga
Livonia
Courland
Polock
Wiazma
Rzeva
Peresław
Lifland
Pernau
Walk
Wenden
Lutzk
Dubno
Lemberg
Cracow
Warſaw
Prypec R.
Pinſk
Kiow
Bialy Brzeſc
Berlin
Hamburg
Lubeck
Bremen
Hanover
Amſterdam
Utrecht
Cologne
Frankfort
Leipſic
Dresden
Breſlau
Glogau
Poſen
Gratz
Vienna
Munich
Ratiſbon
Augſburg
Inſpruck
Switzerland
Bern
Geneva
Lyons
Turin
Genoa
Milan
Mantua
Parma
Florence
Leghorn
Rome
Naples
Sardinia
Corſica
Minorca
Majorca
Iviza
Sicily
Meſſina
Syracuſe
Palermo
Lipari Is.
Malta I.
Tripoli
Tunis
Algiers
Oran
Fez
Morocco
Gabes
Sallee
Mequinez
Tetuan
Gibraltar
Strait of Gibraltar
Tangier
Ceuta
Cape Spartel
Cape St. Vincent
Cape Finiſterre
Cape Ortegal
Ferro
Oviedo
Leon
Vigo
Oporto
R. Douro
Lisbon
Tagus R.
Badajos
Toledo
Madrid
Guadiana R.
Salamanca
Zaragoſa
Pampelona
Bilboa
Burgos
Valladolid
Bayonne
Bordeaux
Toulouſe
Narbonne
Montpellier
Lyons
Rochefort
Rochelle
Poitiers
Orleans
Tours
Nantes
Garonne R.
Loire R.
Bay of Biſcay
Rhine R.
Elbe R.
Oder R.
Viſtula R.
Niemen R.
Dwina R.
Volga R.
Don R.
Danube R.
Save R.
Drave R.
Theiſs R.
Dniepr R.
Dniepr R.
Dniſter R.
Pruth R.
Bug R.
Vienna
Inſpruck
Munich
Ratiſbon
Augſburg
Switzerland
Bern
Geneva
Lyons
Turin
Genoa
Milan
Mantua
Parma
Florence
Leghorn
Rome
Naples
Sardinia
Corſica
Minorca
Majorca
Iviza
Sicily
Meſſina
Syracuſe
Palermo
Lipari Is.
Malta I.
Tripoli
Tunis
Algiers
Oran
Fez
Morocco
Gabes
Sallee
Mequinez
Tetuan
Gibraltar
Strait of Gibraltar
Tangier
Ceuta
Cape Spartel
Cape St. Vincent
Cape Finiſterre
Cape Ortegal
Ferro
Oviedo
Leon
Vigo
Oporto
R. Douro
Lisbon
Tagus R.
Badajos
Toledo
Madrid
Guadiana R.
Salamanca
Zaragoſa
Pampelona
Bilboa
Burgos
Valladolid
Bayonne
Bordeaux
Toulouſe
Narbonne
Montpellier
Lyons
Rochefort
Rochelle
Poitiers
Orleans
Tours
Nantes
Garonne R.
Loire R.
Bay of Biſcay
Rhine R.
Elbe R.
Oder R.
Viſtula R.
Niemen R.
Dwina R.
Volga R.
Don R.
Danube R.
Save R.
Drave R.
Theiſs R.
Dniepr R.
Dniepr R.
Dniſter R.
Pruth R.
Bug R.
Hungary
Buda
Colocza
Agria
Bistritz
Iaſſi
Falczi
Bender
Ozik
Temeſwar
Belgrade
Jagodina
Sophia
Bucharest
Ismail
Bakchiſarai
Kaffa
Precop
Nicopoli
Widin
Varna
Sitiſtria
Sarajo
Ragusa
Scopia
Philippopoli
Adrianople
Conſtantinople
Trebizond
Erzerum
Sinope
Samſun
Marmora
Burſa
Smyrna
Aleppo
Aduna
Tripoli
Damaſcus
Cyprus
Rhodes
Candia
Morea
Zante I.
Cephalonia
Corinth
Lepanto
Archipelago
Greece
Durazza
Salonichi
Turkey
Tartary
Aſoph
Tarku
Caſpian Sea
Black Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Archipelago
Atlantic Ocean
Northern Ocean
Baltic Sea
Gulf of Bothnia
English Channel
Irish Sea
Bay of Biſcay
Strait of Gibraltar
Longit: E. from London.

The Chriſtian religion is eſtabliſhed throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey; but from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which ſpeculative opinions are apt to appear when viewed by perſons of different educations and paſſions, that religion is divided into a number of different ſects, but which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1ſt, The Greek church: 2d, Popery: and, 3d, Proteſtantiſm: which laſt is again divided into Lutheraniſm and Calviniſm, ſo called from Luther and Calvin, the diſtinguiſhed reformers of the ſixteenth century.

The languages of Europe are derived from the ſix following: the Greek, Latin, Teutonic or old German, the Celtic, Sclavonic, and Gothic.

GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

THIS grand diviſion of the earth is ſituated between the 10th degree weſt, and the 65th degree eaſt longitude from London, and between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the eaſt, by Aſia; on the ſouth, by the Mediterranean ſea, which divides it from Africa; and on the weſt, by the Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America; being 3000 miles long, from Cape St. Vincent in the weſt, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north-eaſt; and 2500 broad from north to ſouth, from the North Cape in Norway, to Cape Cayha or Metapar in the Morea, the moſt ſouthern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and ſtates:

	Kingdoms.	Length	Breadth	Chief City.	Diſt. & Bearing from London.	Difference of Time fr. London.	Religions.
					Miles.	H. M.	
Britiſh Empire.	England	380	300	London			Calviniſts, Luth. &c.
	Scotland	300	150	Edinburgh	400 N.	0 12 aſt.	Calviniſts, &c.
	Ireland	285	160	Dublin	270 N. W.	0 26 aſt.	Calviniſts & Papiſts.
	Norway	1000	500	Bergen	540 N.	0 24 bef.	Lutherans.
	Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	570 N. E.	0 50 bef.	Lutherans.
	Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	750 N. E.	1 10 bef.	Lutherans
	Ruſſia	1500	1100	Peterſburgh	1140 N. E.	2 4 bef.	Greek church.
	Poland	700	680	Warſaw	710 E.	1 24 bef.	Pap. Luth. & Calv.
	Kingdom	600	350	Berlin	540 E.	0 49 bef.	Lutherans & Calvin.
	Germany	600	500	Vienna	660 E.	1 5 bef.	Pap. Luth. & Calv.
	Bohemia	300	250	Prague	660 E.	1 4 bef.	Papiſts.
Nether-lands.	Holland	150	100	Amſterdam	180 E.	0 18 bef.	Calviniſts
	Flanders	200	200	Brunſwick	180 S. E.	0 10 bef.	Papiſts.
	France	600	500	Paris	270 S. E.	0 9 bef.	Papiſts.
	Spain	700	500	Madrid	800 S.	0 17 aſt.	Papiſts.
	Portugal	300	100	Lisbon	870 S. W.	0 35 aſt.	Papiſts.
	Switzerland	260	100	Bern, Coire, &c.	420 S. E.	0 25 bef.	Calviniſts & Papiſts.
Italy.	Sev. ſmall ſtates, Piedm. Monferrat. Milan, Parma, Modena, Mant. Venice, Genoa, Tuſc. &c.						
	Chief cities ..... Turin. Caſal.				Milan, Parma, Modena, Mant. Venice, Genoa, Florence.		
	Savoy	240	120	Turin	820 S. E.	0 52 bef.	Papiſts.
	Naples	270	140	Naples	870 S. E.	0 47 bef.	Papiſts.
	Hungary	300	270	Buda	980 S. E.	1 17 bef.	Pap. & Proteſtants
Turkey in Europe.	Dannbian Provinces	600	420	Conſtantinople	1320 S. E.	1 58 bef.	Mahometans and Greek church.
	Little Tartary*	380	240	Precop	1500 E.	2 24 bef.	
	Greece	400	240	Athens	1360 S. E.	1 37 bef.	

* This includes the Crim Tartary, now ceded to Ruſſia; for the particulars of which, ſee RUSSIA.

Exclusive of the BRITISH ISLES before mentioned, EUROPE contains the following principal ISLANDS.

	ISLANDS.	Chief Town	Subject to
In the Northern Ocean	Iceland	Skalholt	Denmark
Baltic Sea	Zealand, Funen, Alsen, Falster, Langland, Lapland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm	—	Denmark
	Gothland, Aland, Rugen	—	Sweden
	Osel, Dagho	—	Russia
	Usedom, Wollin	—	Prussia
Mediterranean Sea	Ivica	Ivica	Spain
	Majorca	Majorca	Ditto
	Minorca	Port Mahon	Ditto*
	Corsica	Bastia	England
	Sardinia	Cagliari	K. of Sard.
	Sicily	Palermo	K. of 2 Sic.
Adriatic, or Gulph of Venice	Lusiena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Leucadia	—	Venice
Archipelago and Levant Seas	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mitylene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece	—	Turkey

* Minorca was taken from Spain by General Stanhope, 1708, and confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, but was besieged and taken by the Spaniards February 15. 1782, and confirmed to them by the definitive treaty of peace, signed at Paris, September 3, 1783.

DENMARK.

I Shall, according to my plan, begin this account of his Danish majesty's dominions with the most northerly situations, and divide them into four parts: 1st, East and West Greenland, Iceland, and the islands in the Atlantic Ocean; 2d, Norway; 3d, Denmark Proper; and, 4th, his German territories.—The dimensions of these countries may be seen in the following table.

DENMARK.		Square Miles.	Leng.	Breadt	Chief Cities.
Denmark Proper	North Jutland	9,600	155	98	Wyburgh.
	South Jutland, or Sleswick.	2,115	70	63	Sleswick.
Islands at the entrance of the Baltic Sea	Zealand	1,935	60	60	COPENHAGEN, N. Lat. 55. 41. E. Lon. 12. 59.
	Funen	768	38	32	Odensee.
	Falsterland	220	27	12	Nikoping. Naxkaw.
	Langland				
	Femeren	50	13	8	Borge.
	Alsen	54	15	6	Sonderborge.
	Mona	39	14	5	Stege.
	Bornholm	160	20	12	Rostcomby.
In the North Seas,	Iceland Island	46,000	435	185	Skalholt.
	Norway	71,400	750	170	Bergen.
Danish	Lapland	28,400	285	172	Wardhuys.
Westphalia	Oldenburgh	1260	62	32	Oldenburgh.
Lower Saxony	Stormar	1000	52	32	Gluckstadt.
	Danish Holstein				
	Total	163,001			

Plate IV.

ICELAND ISLE Drawn to the same Scale.

North Cape
Isa Fiord
Reike Fiord
Grimsby I.
Long Ness
Hola
Wapne Fiord
Rode Fiord
Skallholt
Mt Heckla
Horn Fiord
Grunde Fiord
Desert I.
ICELAND
65°
65

British Statute Miles.
50 100 150 200

Faro Is.
Mainland
SHETLAND Is.
Kirkwall
Dungsby Hd
Murray Firth
Buchan Ness
Aberdeen
Firth of Forth
Newcastle
Whitby
Flamborough Hd
Humber R.
ENGLAND
SCOTLAND
60
55

NORTH SEA

Arctic Circle

Lofoden Isles
Malestrom
Heytingeland
Figten I.
Osen
Hitteren I.
Christiansund
Drontheim
Molde
Romsdal
DRONTHEIM
Cape Stadt
Kirmanger Isl.
Lon
BERGHEM
Lesoe
Sannoe
Samsoe
Silkin I.
Vigone
Cattegat
B. Francer
Gudal
Berghen
Sartor L.
Rommel R.
Bergenbrin
Karm I.
CHRISTIANSAND
Jonsberg
East Risor
Arendal
Christiansand
C. Lindenas
Kongsberg
Christiania
SWEDEN
Gothenburg
Frederickshall
Skagerrack
GOTHLAND
Kongsmall
Wenersborg
Tysted
Holt
Lessen I.
Wyburg
N. JUTLAND
Aarhuus
Weille
Colding
Ryper
S. JUTLAND
Jylt I.
Tonningen
Elbe R.
Kiel
Lunden
Ystad
DENMARK
Sleswic
Moen I.
Falster I.
GERMANY
Hals
Berg
Fal
Ruge
John

0 5 10 15

SWEDEN DENMARK, NORWAY, and FINLAND. from the best AUTHORITIES

ICELAND ISLE Drawn to the same Scale.

British Statute Miles.

50 100 150 200

Arctic Circle

NORTH SEA

OCEAN

BALTIC SEA

GULF OF BOTHNIA

GULF OF FINLAND

WHITE SEA

Faro Is.

Mainland Is. SHETLAND Is.

Kirkwall

Dungsby Hd

Murcay Firth

Buchan Ness

Aberdeen

Firth of Forth

Newcastle

Whitby

Flamborough Hd

Humber R.

Maggerve I.

North C.

Nord Kyn

Wardhuys

Waranger B.

Kolgoy I.

Lofoden Isles

Malestrom

Malangen

Samien

Stuoy I.

Stiem I.

Enaraby

Enara

Kola

Kola R.

Kola L.

C. Candenoz

Seven I.

Orlof

Penoisk

Kandalax

Umba

Olenica

Palioa

Mezen

Kattelaby

Kangis

Lulaen

Sambi

Kerd

Top I.

Kanto L.

Archangel

Kolmogori

Malen

Lulea

Gefwara

Celtix

Torn ea

Tami

Lulea

Heyligeland

Arieplog

Pitea

Figten I.

Wapsend

Umeaby

Asele

Osen

Soderby

Hall I.

Hitteren I.

Christiansund

Molde

Sundal

THEIM

Cape Staal

Bremanger I.

Lesioe

Sandswall

Hudwickswall

Soderhamn

Gefle

Falun

Aland I.

Nystadt

Abo

Hafiko

Borgo

Biorneborg

Pajanes L.

Lake

Keltis

Wybrg

Lagoda Lake

PETERSBURG

Revel

ESTHONIA

Pepus L.

Novogorod

Ilmen L.

LIVONIA

COURLAND

Memel

Riga

Gothland I.

Oeland

Wisby

Gotske I.

Carlscroon

Christianstad

Brenholm

Koningsburg

Dantzic

PRUSSIA

POLAND

Upsal

Westeros

STOCKHOLM

Nykoping

Linkoping

Gripsholm

Johnkioping

Carlsby

Umea

Gamla Carleby

Wasa

Christianstad

Kumala

Lapeniki

Uki

Onega Lake

Kargopol

Pudina

Onega R.

Vitmanlax

Ulea

Pithaiaki

Ulea L.

Berezof

Umba R.

Tornea

Kemi

Kanto L.

Top I.

Kerd

Sambi

Kangis

Lulaen

Kattelaby

Lula R.

Lapland

Swedish Lapland

Russian Lapland

Finland

Ulea R.

Ulea L.

Swedish Lapland

Russian Lapland

Finland

Lapland

Sweden

Norway

Denmark

Germany

Iceland

North Cape

Lea Fiord

Reike Fiord

Grimsby I.

Grunde Fiord

Hola

Long Ness

Besestad

Wappe Fiord

Rode Fiord

Skalholt

Mt Heida

Hecla

Burn Fiord

Bergen

Christiansand

Drontheim

Lister L.

Bommel I.

Karmt I.

Hitteren I.

Stadt

Molde

Sundal

Lesioe

Quakne

Gannoa

Ganta

Evanger

Guedal

Tofte

Kongswinger

Christiania

Jonsberg

Arendal

Stavanger

East Risoer

Christiansand

C. Lindenas

Skagerrack

Cattegat

Sound

Elsinore

Helsingborg

Landskrona

Lund

Christianstad

Cimbrishavn

Ystad

Malmstad

Calmar

Wexio

Weile

Colding

Aarhuus

Ryper

Sleswic

Tonningen

Elbe R.

Kiel

Eckernforde

Flensburg

Moen I.

Falster I.

Rugen

Hall

Soderby

Scalevod

Indal R.

Hain Berg

Maneby

Hernosiadt

Ljusne

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Soderhamn

Hudwickswall

Sandswall

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Hernosiadt

Ljusne

Gefle

Soderhamn

Hudwickswall

Sandswall

0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45

55 60 65

30 Longitude East from London 35

The reader may perceive, that in the preceding table no calculation is made of the dimenſions of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland; becauſe, in fact, they are not yet known; or known very imperfectly: we ſhall proceed to give the lateſt accounts of them, and from the beſt authorities that have come to our hands.

EAST AND WEST GREENLAND, ICELAND, AND THE ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

EAST GREENLAND,

THE moſt northerly part of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, or, as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 11 and 25 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. according to captain Phipps's obſervations in his voyage, 1773. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was diſcovered by ſir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; and is ſuppoſed to be a continuation of Old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen from the height and raggedneſs of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are to be found here, and the fiſh and fowl are ſaid to forſake the coaſt in winter. The Ruſſians of Archangel have, within the laſt 30 years, formed ſettlements for hunting in ſeveral places of the iſland of Spitzbergen. The Aurora Borealis, or northern lights, reflected from the ſnow, enable them to purſue the chaſe during the long winter's night that reigns in theſe gloomy regions; and they take a great number of ſea-lions, which ſerve them for food. There is a whale fiſhery, chiefly proſecuted by the Dutch and Britiſh veſſels, on its coaſts. It likewiſe contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice Bay; but the inland parts are uninhabited.

WEST GREENLAND

LIES between the meridian of London, and 53 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 76 deg. N. lat.

INHABITANTS.] By the lateſt accounts from the miſſionaries employed for the converſion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 ſtated inhabitants. Mr. Crantz, however, thinks the roving ſouthlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great reſemblance, in aſpect, manners, and dreſs, between thoſe people and the Eſquimaux Americans, from whom they naturally differ but little, even after all the pains which the Daniſh and German miſſionaries have taken to convert and civiliſe them. They are low of ſtature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not ſo tall. The hair of their heads is long, ſtraight, and of a black colour: but they have ſeldom any beards, becauſe it is their conſtant practice to root them out. They have high breaſts and broad ſhoulders, eſpecially the women, who are obliged to carry great burthens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can alſo uſe their hands with much ſkill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers; but they are good-humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their moſt agreeable food is the fleſh of rein-deer; but that is now ſcarce among them, and their beſt proviſions are fiſh, ſeals, and ſea-fowl. Their drink is clear water, which ſtands in the houſe in a large copper veſſel, or in a wooden tub, which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fiſh-bones and rings, and provided with a pewter ladle or dipping diſh.

The

The men make their hunting and fiſhing implements, and prepare the wood-work of their boats: and the women cover them with ſkins. The men hunt and fiſh: but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themſelves no farther about it; nay, it would be accounted beneath their dignity even to draw out the fiſh upon the ſhore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and alſo the curriers to dreſs the pelts, and make cloaths, ſhoes, and boots, out of them; ſo that they are likewiſe both ſhoemakers and tailors. The women alſo build and repair the houſes and tents, ſo far as relates to the maſonry, the men doing only the carpenters' work. They live in huts during the winter, which is incredibly ſevere; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the lateſt and beſt accounts of this country, ſays that, in their longeſt ſummer days it is ſo hot, from the long continuance of the ſun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their ſummer garments. They have no trade, though they have a moſt improvable fiſhery upon their coaſts; but they employ all the year either in fiſhing or hunting; in which they are very dexterous, particularly in catching and killing ſeals.

CURIOSITIES.] The taking of whales in the ſeas of Greenland, among the fields of ice that have been increaſing for ages, is one of the greateſt curioſities in nature. Theſe fields or pieces of ice are frequently more than a mile in length, and upwards of 200 feet in thickneſs; and when they are put in motion by a ſtorm, nothing can be more terrible; the Dutch had 15 ſhips cruſhed to pieces by them in one ſeaſon.

There are ſeveral kinds of whales in Greenland; ſome white, and others black. The black ſort, the grand bay whale, is in moſt eſteem on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords, which turns to oil. His tongue is about 18 feet long, incloſed in long pieces of what we call whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horſe-hair; and on each ſide of his tongue are 250 pieces of this whalebone. The bones of his body are as hard as an ox's bones, and of no uſe. There are no teeth in his mouth; and he is uſually between 60 and 80 feet long; very thick about the head: but grows leſs from thence to the tail.

When the ſeamen ſee a whale-ſpout, the word is immediately given, *a fall, a fall*, when every one haſtens from the ſhip to his boat; ſix or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats uſually belong to one ſhip.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner ſtrikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart), and the monſter, finding himſelf wounded, dives ſwiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him if they did not give him line faſt enough; and to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the ſide of it, one wets it conſtantly with a mop. After the whale has run ſome hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes ſuch a terrible noiſe with his ſpouting, that ſome have compared it to the firing of cannon. As ſoon as he appears on the ſurface of the water, ſome of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a ſecond time, they pierce him with ſpears in the vital parts, till he ſpouts out ſtreams of blood inſtead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the ſea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him ſome leagues, till he has loſt his ſtrength; and when he is dying he turns himſelf upon his back, and is drawn on ſhore, or to the ſhip, if they be at a diſtance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniences on ſhore; otherwiſe they barrel up the pieces and bring them home:

but

but nothing can ſmell ſtronger than theſe ſhips do. Every fiſh is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. a barrel. Though the Danes claim the country of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland where theſe whales are taken, the Dutch have in a manner monopoliſed this fiſhery. Of late the Engliſh have alſo been very ſucceſsful in it.

ICELAND.

THIS iſland, which receives its name from the great maſſes of ice there are ſeen near it, lies between 63 and 67 deg. N. lat. and between 11 and 27 deg. W. long. It extends four hundred miles in length, and an hundred and ſixty in breadth, containing about 46,000 ſquare miles. In April, 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland obſerved ſomething riſing and flaming in the ſea, to the ſouth of Grinbourg, at eight miles diſtance from the rocks des Oiſeaux, which afterwards was found to be a new iſland. The fact is authentic, but its dimenſions and ſituation are not well aſcertained. The information brought by the laſt ſhip from thence, was, that the iſland was ſtill increaſing, and that great quantities of fire iſſued from two of its eminences.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] It appears that a Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, ſettled in Iceland in the ninth century. They found there inhabitants who were Chriſtians, and whom they called *Papas*. It is ſaid that the Norwegians alſo found among them Iriſh books, bells, and croſiers: and it is conjectured that the people who were there when the Norwegians arrived in the iſland, originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but they were at laſt obliged to ſubmit to the kings of Norway, and afterward became ſubject, together with Norway, to the kings of Denmark. They were at firſt governed by an admiral, who was ſent there every year to make the neceſſary regulations: but that mode has now been changed for many years, and a governor appointed, who is ſtyled *Stiftſamtmann*, and who conſtantly reſides in the country.

The number of inhabitants in Iceland is computed at about 60,000, which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It has been much more populous in former times, but great numbers have been deſtroyed by contagious diſeaſes. The plague carried off many thouſands from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have alſo been depopulated by famine; for though the Icelanders cannot in general be ſaid to be in want of neceſſary food, yet the country has ſeveral times been viſited by great famines. Theſe have been chiefly occaſioned by the Greenland floating ice; which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the graſs from growing, and puts an entire ſtop to their fiſhing. The ſmall-pox has likewiſe been very fatal here; for in the years 1707 and 1708 that diſeaſe deſtroyed 16,000 perſons.

The Icelanders in general are middle-ſized, and well made, though not very ſtrong They are an honeſt, well-intentioned people, moderately induſtrious, and are very faithful and obliging. Theft is ſeldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hoſpitality, and exerciſe it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief employment is attending to fiſhing and the care of their cattle. On the coaſts the men employ their time in fiſhing both winter and ſummer; and the women prepare the fiſh, and ſew and ſpin. The men alſo prepare leather, work at ſeveral mechanic trades, and ſome few work in gold and ſilver. They likewiſe

manufacture a coarſe kind of cloth, which they call Wadmal. They have an uncommonly ſtrong attachment to their native country, and think themſelves no where elſe ſo happy. An Icelander, therefore, ſeldom ſettles in Copenhagen, though the moſt advantageous conditions ſhould be offered him. Their diſpoſitions are ſerious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never paſs a river, or any other dangerous place, without previouſly taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection; and they are always thankful for their preſervation, when they have paſſed the danger. When they meet together, their chief paſtime conſiſts in reading their hiſtory. The maſter of the houſe begins, and the reſt continue in their turns when he is tired. They are famous for playing at cheſs; and one of their paſtimes conſiſts in reciting verſes. Sometimes a man and woman take one another by the hand, and by turns ſing ſtanzas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occaſionally join in chorus. The dreſs of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental, but is neat, cleanly, and ſuited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear ſeveral gold, ſilver, or braſs rings. The poorer women dreſs in the coarſe cloth, called Wadmal, and always wear black; thoſe who are in better circumſtances wear broad cloth, with ſilver ornaments, gilt. The houſes of the Icelanders are generally bad: in ſome places they are built of drift wood, and in others they are raiſed of lava, with moſs ſtuffed between the lava. Their roofs are covered with ſods laid over rafters, or ſometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and leſs expenſive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the hearth, between three ſtones, and the ſmoke iſſues from a ſquare hole in the roof. Their food principally conſiſts of dried fiſh, ſour butter, which they conſider as a great dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is ſo ſcarce among them, that there is hardly any peaſant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

RELIGION.] The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran. The churches in the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt quarters of the iſland, are under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Skalholt (the capital of the iſland), and thoſe of the north quarter are ſubject to the biſhop of Hoolum. The iſland is divided into 189 pariſhes, of which 127 belong to the ſee of Skalholt, and 62 to that of Hoolum. All the miniſters are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly ſalary of four or five hundred rix-dollars from the king, excluſive of what they have from their congregations.

LANGUAGE.] The language in Iceland is the ſame as that formerly ſpoken in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and has been preſerved ſo pure, that any Icelander underſtands their moſt ancient traditional hiſtories.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is ſaid that poetry formerly flouriſhed very much in Iceland; and we are informed that Egil Skallagrimſon, Kormack Ormundſon, Glum Geirſon, and Thorlief Jarlaa, were celebrated as great poets. But the art of writing was not much in uſe till after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were known in that country before that period, and moſt probably brought thither from Norway. After the reception of the Chriſtian religion, the Latin characters were immediately adopted, as the Runic alphabet, which only conſiſts of ſixteen letters, was found inſufficient. The firſt Icelandiſh biſhop, Iſleif, founded a ſchool at Skalholt; and ſoon after they founded four other ſchools, in which the youth were inſtructed in the Latin tongue, divinity, and ſome parts of theoretic philoſophy. And from the introduction of the Chriſtian religion here till the year 1264, when Iceland became ſubject to Norway,

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it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the North, wherein the ſciences were cultivated and held in eſteem.

But this period of time ſeems to have produced more learned men in Iceland than any other period ſince. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had conſiderable knowledge in morality, philoſophy, natural hiſtory, and aſtronomy. Moſt of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and ſome of them have been printed. Mr. Banks, now ſir Joſeph Banks, preſented one hundred and ſixty-two Icelandiſh manuſcripts to the Britiſh Muſeum. That gentleman viſited Iceland in 1772, accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil, and Dr. Lind. Dr. Van Troil, who publiſhed an account of their voyage, obſerves, that he found more knowledge among the lower claſs in Iceland, than is to be met with in moſt other places; that many of them could repeat the works of ſome of their poets by heart; and that a peaſant was ſeldom to be found, who, beſides being well inſtructed in the principles of religion, was not alſo acquainted with the hiſtory of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional hiſtories, that being one of their principal amuſements.

John Areſon, biſhop of Hoolum, employed John Matthieſſon, a native of Sweden, in eſtabliſhing a printing preſs in Iceland about the year 1530; and the firſt book printed by him there was the Breviarium Nidarоſienſe. He alſo printed an eccleſiaſtical manual, Luther's catechiſm, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578, and the Icelandic bible in 1584. A new privileged printing-office has lately been eſtabliſhed at Hrappſey in this iſland, at which ſeveral valuable books have been printed.

MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, AND NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Though this iſland is ſituated ſo far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more known than in many countries in much warmer climates. The former have ſeveral times laid the country almoſt deſolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth and produced very fatal conſequences. Many of the ſnowy mountains have alſo gradually become volcanoes. One of theſe burning mountains, Heckla, is the beſt known, eſpecially to foreigners. This mountain is ſituated in the ſouthern part of the iſland, about four miles from the ſea-coaſt, and is divided into three points at the top, the higheſt of which is that in the middle, and which is computed to be above 5000 feet higher than the ſea. This mountain has frequently ſent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occaſioned terrible devaſtations, the aſhes being thrown all round the iſland to the diſtance of 180 Engliſh miles. The laſt eruption of Mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded from it in December 1771, and 1772; but no eruptions of lava.

But amongſt all the curioſities of Iceland, nothing is more worthy of attention than the hot ſpouting water-ſprings with which this iſland abounds. The hot ſprings at Aix-la-Chapelle, Carlſbad, Bath, and Switzerland, and ſeveral others found in Italy, are conſidered as very remarkable; but, excepting in the laſt mentioned country, the water no where becomes ſo hot as to boil; nor is it any where known to be thrown ſo high as the hot ſpouting water-ſprings in Iceland. All thoſe water-works that have been contrived with ſo much art, and at ſo enormous an expenſe, cannot by any means be compared with theſe. The water-works at St. Cloud, which are thought the greateſt among all the French water-works, caſt up a thin column eighty feet in the air; while ſome ſprings in

Iceland ſpout columns of water, of ſeveral feet in thickneſs, to the height of many fathoms; and, as many affirm, of ſeveral hundred feet. Theſe ſprings are of an unequal degree of heat. From ſome, the water flows gently as from other ſprings, and it is then called a bath: from others, ſpouts boiling water with great noiſe, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Van Troil ſays that he does not remember ever to have obſerved it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geyſer, Rœynum, and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212; and in the laſt place, in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 213 degrees. It is very common for ſome of the ſpouting-ſprings to ceaſe, and others to riſe up in their ſtead. Frequent earthquakes, and ſubterranean noiſes, heard at the time, cauſed great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In ſeveral of theſe hot-ſprings, the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot, into which the fleſh is put in cold water, in the water of the ſpring. They alſo bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become lukewarm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of theſe ſprings are ſaid to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk, and it is likewiſe eſteemed very wholeſome when drank by the human ſpecies.

The largeſt of all the ſpouting-ſprings in Iceland is called Geyſer. It is about two days' journey from Heckla, and not far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it, a loud roaring noiſe is heard, like the ruſhing of a torrent, precipitating itſelf from ſtupendous rocks. The water here ſpouts ſeveral times a-day, but always by ſtarts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed that it ſpouts to the height of ſixty fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at ſome times than at others; when Dr. Van Troil was there, the utmoſt height to which it mounted was computed to be 92 feet.

Baſaltine pillars are likewiſe very common in Iceland, which are ſuppoſed to have been produced by ſubterraneous fires. The lower ſort of people imagine theſe pillars to have been piled upon one another by giants, who made uſe of ſupernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to ſeven ſides, and are from four to ſeven feet in thickneſs, and from twelve to ſixteen yards in length, without any horizontal diviſions. In ſome places they are only ſeen here and there among the lava in the mountains: but in ſome other places, they extend two or three miles in length without interruption.

There are immenſe maſſes of ice, by which every year great damage is done to this country, and which affect the climate of it; they arrive commonly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind from Greenland. The field ice is of two or three fathoms thickneſs, is ſeparated by the winds, and leſs dreaded than the rock or mountain-ice, which is often ſeen fifty and more feet above water, and is at leaſt nine times the ſame depth below water. Theſe prodigious maſſes of ice are frequently left in ſhoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground, and in that ſtate remain many months, nay, it is ſaid, even years, undiſſolved, chilling all the ambient part of the atmoſphere for many miles round. When many ſuch lofty and bulky maſſes of ice are floating together, the wood that is often drifted along between them, is ſo much chafed and preſſed with ſuch violence together, that it takes fire; which circumſtance has occaſioned fabulous accounts of the ice being in flames. The ice cauſed ſo violent a cold in 1753, and 1754, that horſes and ſheep dropped down dead on account of it, as well as for want of food: horſes were obſerved to feed upon dead cattle, and the ſheep to eat of each other's wool. A number of bears ar-

rive

rive yearly with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the ſheep. The Icelanders attempt to deſtroy theſe intruders as ſoon as they get ſight of them: and ſometimes they aſſemble together, and drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. For want of fire-arms, they are obliged to make uſe of ſpears on theſe occaſions. The government encourages the natives to deſtroy theſe animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed. Their ſkins are alſo purchaſed for the king, and are not allowed to be ſold to any other perſon.

It is extraordinary that no wood grows ſucceſsfully in Iceland; nay, there are very few trees to be found on the whole iſland, though there are certain proofs that wood formerly grew there in great abundance. Nor can corn be cultivated here to any advantage; though cabbages, parſley, turnips, and peas, may be met with in five or ſix gardens, which are ſaid to be all that are in the whole iſland.

TRADE.] The commerce of this iſland is monopoliſed by a Daniſh company. The ſoil upon the ſea-coaſt is tolerably good for paſture: and though there is not any conſiderable town in the whole iſland, the Icelanders have ſeveral frequented ports. Their exports conſiſt of dried fiſh, ſalted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarſe woollen-cloths, ſtockings, gloves, raw wool, ſheep-ſkins, lamb-ſkins, fox furs of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. Their imports conſiſt of timber, fiſhing-lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horſe-ſhoes, brandy, wine, ſalt, linen, and a little ſilk, excluſive of ſome neceſſaries and ſuperfluities for the more wealthy.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] As Iceland affords no bait for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Daniſh majeſty's protection; and the revenue he draws from the country amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

THE FARO OR FERRO ISLANDS,

SO called from their lying in a cluſter, and the inhabitants ferrying from one iſland to another. They are about 24 in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. N. L. and 6° 10′ W. long. from London. The ſpace of this cluſter extends about 60 miles in length and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the weſtward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the ſouth-eaſt, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-weſt. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 4000 or 5000, add little or nothing to the revenues of Denmark.

NORWAY.

Containing 158,400 ſquare miles, with leſs than 4 inhabitants to each.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.] THE natural ſignification of Norway is, the *Northern-way*. It is bounded on the South by the entrance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Categate; on the Weſt and North by the northern ocean; and on the Eaſt it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as Filleſield, Dofreſield, Runſield, and Dourfield. The reader may conſult the table of dimenſions in Denmark for its extent: but it is a country ſo little known to the reſt of Europe, that it is difficult to fix its dimenſions with preciſion.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent, and its poſition toward the ſea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the ſea is practicable. The eaſtern parts of Norway are commonly covered with ſnow; and the cold generally ſets in about the middle of October, with

intenſe ſeverity, to the middle of April; the waters being all that while frozen to a conſiderable thickneſs. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, periſhed in the ſnow, on the mountain which ſeparates Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different poſtures. But even froſt and ſnow have their conveniences, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more northern parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is ſo intenſe, that they are but little known. At Bergen the longeſt day conſiſts of about 19 hours, and the ſhorteſt of about five. In ſummer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the ſky; and in the moſt northerly parts, about midſummer, the ſun is continually in view. In thoſe parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and a half, owing to the reflection of the ſun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithſtanding, has been ſo kind to the Norwegians, that, in the midſt of their darkneſs, the ſky is ſo ſerene, and the moon and the aurora borealis ſo bright, that they carry on their fiſhery, and work at their ſeveral trades in the open air.

The air is ſo pure in ſome of the inland parts, that it has been ſaid the inhabitants live ſo long as to be tired of life, and cauſe themſelves to be tranſported to a leſs ſalubrious air. Sudden thaws, and ſnow-falls, have however, ſometimes dreadful effects, and deſtroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway is reckoned one of the moſt mountainous countries in the world; for it contains a chain of unequal mountains running from ſouth to north: to paſs that of Ardanger, a man muſt travel about ſeventy Engliſh miles; and to paſs others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is counted the higheſt mountain perhaps in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which interſect thoſe dreadful precipices, and that are paſſable only by ſlight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expenſe of providing, at different ſtages, houſes accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vaſt chain, other immenſe mountains preſent themſelves all over Norway; ſome of them with reſervoirs of water on the top, and the whole forming a moſt ſurpriſing landſcape. The activity of the natives in recovering their ſheep and goats, when penned up, through a falſe ſtep, in one of thoſe rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himſelf to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, ſitting on a croſs ſtick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature ſtands, he faſtens it to the ſame cord, and it is drawn up with himſelf. The caverns that are to be met with in theſe mountains, are more wonderful than thoſe, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though leſs liable to obſervation. One of them, called Dolſteen, was, in 1750, viſited by two clergymen, who reported that they proceeded in it till they heard the ſea daſhing over their heads; that the paſſage was as wide and as high as an ordinary church, the ſides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted; that they deſcended a flight of natural ſtairs; but when they arrived at another, they durſt not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they conſumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its foreſts, which furniſh foreigners with maſts, beams, planks, and boards, and ſerve beſide for all domeſtic uſes, particularly the conſtruction of houſes, bridges, ſhips, and for charcoal to the founderies. The timber growing here are fir, and pine, elm, aſh, yew, benreed (a very curious wood), birch, beech, oak, elm, or elder, juniper, the aſpin-tree, the comol or ſloe-tree, hazel, elder, and even ebony (under the mountains of Kolen), lime or linden-

tree,

tree, and willows. The ſums which Norway receives for timber are very conſiderable; but the induſtry of the inhabitants is greatly aſſiſted by the courſe of their rivers, and the ſituation of their lakes, which afford them not only the conveniency already mentioned, of floating down their timber, but that of erecting ſaw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all ſawed timber belongs to his Daniſh majeſty, and forms no inconſiderable part of his revenue.

STONES, METALS, AND MINERALS.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of ſtones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or aſbeſtos, which being of an incombuſtible nature, when its delicate fibres are woven into cloth, is cleaned by burning, is likewiſe found here; as are cryſtals, granites, amethyſts, agate, thunder-ſtones, and eagle-ſtones. Gold found in Norway has been coined into ducats. His Daniſh majeſty is now working, to great advantage, a ſilver mine at Coningſburgh; other ſilver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many ſilver maſſes that have been diſcovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be ſeen at the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen. Lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country: one of the copper mines at Rorana is thought to be the richeſt in Europe. Norway likewiſe produces quick-ſilver, ſulphur, ſalt, and coal-mines, vitriol, alum, and various kinds of loam; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers and freſh water lakes in this country are well ſtocked with fiſh, and navigable for ſhips of conſiderable burden. The moſt extraordinary circumſtance attending the lakes is, that ſome of them contain floating iſlands, formed by the coheſion of roots of trees and ſhrubs; and, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. So late as the year 1702, the noble family ſeat of Borge, near Fredericſtadt, ſuddenly ſunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyſs a hundred fathoms in deph; and its ſcite was inſtantly filled with a piece of water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which 14 people and 200 head of cattle periſhed, was occaſioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

UNCOMMON ANIMALS, FOWLS, AND FISHES. All the animals that are natives of Denmark are to be found in Norway, with an addition of many more. The wild beaſts peculiar to Norway are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the martin, and the beaver. The elk is a tall, aſh-coloured animal, its ſhape partaking at once of the horſe and the ſtag; it is harmleſs, and in the winter ſocial; and the fleſh of it taſtes like veniſon. The rein-deer is a ſpecies of ſtag; but we ſhall have occaſion to mention it more particularly afterwards. The hares are ſmall, and are ſaid to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are ſtrong and ſagacious: they are remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are common with the reſt of their ſpecies in northern countries; nor can we much credit the very extraordinary ſpecimens of their ſagacity, recorded by the natives: they are hunted by little dogs; and ſome prefer bear hams to thoſe of Weſtphalia. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are ſhy even of a cow or goat, unleſs impelled by hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by ſome called the goupes, is ſmaller than a wolf, but as dangerous; they are of the cat kind, and have claws

like tigers, they dig under ground, and often undermine ſheep-folds, where they make dreadful havock. The ſkin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable, as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewiſe found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs aſhore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The glutton, otherwiſe called the ervan, or vielfras, reſembles a turnſpit dog; with a long body, thick legs, ſharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated, is ſo precious, that he is ſhot with blunt arrows, to preſerve the ſkin unhurt: he is ſo bold, and ſo ravenous, that it is ſaid he will devour a carcaſe larger than himſelf, and unburdens his ſtomach by ſqueezing himſelf between two cloſe-ſtanding trees: when taken, he has been even known to eat ſtone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its ſhyneſs and cleanlineſs; and its fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the martin and a large brown foreſt cat, only its head and ſnout are ſharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. We ſhall have occaſion to mention the beaver in treating of North America.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The alks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noiſe of their wings reſembles a ſtorm; their ſize is the bigneſs of a large duck: they are an aquatic fowl, and their fleſh is much eſteemed. No fewer than 30 different kinds of thruſhes reſide in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and ſeveral ſorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the wood is of a black or dark grey colour, his eye reſembling that of a pheaſant; and he is ſaid to be the largeſt of all eatable birds. Norway produces two kinds of eagles, the land and the ſea; the former is ſo ſtrong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old: the ſea or fiſh-eagle is larger than the other; he ſubſiſts on aquatic food, and ſometimes darts on large fiſhes with ſuch force, that, being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

Nature ſeems to have adapted theſe aerial inhabitants for the coaſt of Norway; and induſtry has produced a ſpecies of mankind peculiarly fitted for making them ſerviceable to the human race; theſe are the birdmen, or climbers, who are amazingly dexterous in mounting the ſteepeſt rocks, and bring away the birds and their eggs: the latter are nutritive food, and are parboiled in vinegar; the fleſh is ſometimes eaten by the peaſants, who generally reliſh it; while the feathers and down form a profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers, in the northern diſtricts, are trained up to be aſſiſtants to theſe birdmen in ſeizing their prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and ſeas are aſtoniſhingly fruitful in all fiſh that are found on the ſea coaſts of Europe, which need not be here enumerated. Stock-fiſh innumerable, which are dried upon the rocks without ſalting. Some fiſhes in thoſe ſeas, however, have their peculiarities. The haac-moren is a ſpecies of ſhark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three caſks of train oil. The tuella flynder is an exceſſive large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who has fallen overboard, to keep him from riſing. The ſeaſon for herring-fiſhing is announced to the fiſhermen by the ſpouting of water from the whales (of which ſeven different ſpecies are mentioned) in following the herring ſhoals. The large whale reſembles a cod, with ſmall eyes, a dark marbled ſkin, and white belly; they ſpout out the water, which they take in by inſpiration, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land animals, ſtanding upright in the ſea. A young whale, when

firſt produced, is about nine or ten feet long: and the female ſometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours ſuch an incredible number of ſmall fiſh, that his belly is often ready to burſt; in which caſe he makes a moſt tremendous noiſe, from pain. The ſmaller fiſh have their revenge; ſome of them faſten on his back, and inceſſantly beat him; others, with ſharp horns, or rather bones, on their beak, ſwim under his belly, and ſometimes rip it up; ſome are provided with long ſharp teeth, and tear his fleſh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war againſt him when he comes near the ſurface of the water; and he has been known to be ſo tortured, that he has beat himſelf to death on the rocks. The coaſt of Norway may be ſaid to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable are the ſhoals that come from under the ice at the north pole, and, about the latitude of Iceland, divide themſelves into three bodies: one of theſe ſupply the weſtern iſles and coaſts of Scotland; another directs its courſe round the eaſtern part of Great Britain, down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torſk fiſhes follow them, and feed upon their ſpawn, and are taken in prodigious numbers, in 50 or 60 fathoms water: theſe, eſpecially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and ſold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fiſhing on the coaſt of Norway. The ſea-devil is about ſix feet in length, and is ſo called from its monſtrous appearance and voracity. The ſea-ſcorpion is likewiſe of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is ſaid to be poiſonous.

The moſt ſeemingly fabulous accounts of the ancients, concerning ſea-monſters, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian ſeas; and the ſea-ſnake, or the ſerpent of the ocean, is no longer counted a chimera. In 1756, one of them was ſhot by a maſter of a ſhip; its head reſembling that of a horſe; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes; a white mane hanging from its neck; it floated on the ſurface of the water, and held its head at leaſt two feet out of the ſea; between the head and neck were ſeven or eight folds, which were very thick; and the length of this ſnake was more than a hundred yards, ſome ſay, fathoms. They have a remarkable averſion to the ſmell of caſtor; for which reaſon, ſhip, boat, and bark maſters provide themſelves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being overſet; the ſerpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquiſite. The particulars related of this animal would be incredible, were they not atteſted upon oath. Egede (a very reputable author (ſays, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful ſea-monſter raiſed itſelf ſo high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-maſt of the ſhip; that it had a long ſharp ſnout, broad paws, and ſpouted water like a whale; that the body ſeemed to be covered with ſcales; the ſkin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a ſnake. The body of this monſter is ſaid to be as thick as a hogſhead; his ſkin is variegated like a tortoiſe-ſhell; and his excrement, which floats on the ſurface of the water, is corroſive, and bliſters the hands of the ſeamen if they handle it.

The exiſtence of the kraken, or korken, is ſtrongly aſſerted; and as it is ſaid to exiſt in theſe ſeas, we think it proper to mention it in this place, leaving it to the judgment of the reader to give what credit to it he pleaſes. Its bulk is ſaid to be a mile and a half in circumference; and when part of it appears above the water, it reſembles a number of ſmall illands and ſand-banks, on which fiſhes diſport themſelves, and ſea-weeds grow;

grow; upon his farther emerging, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and ſize of a moderate maſt, appear: and by their action and re-action he gathers his food, conſiſting of ſmall fiſhes. When he ſinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous ſwell of the ſea ſucceeds, and a kind of whirlpool is naturally formed in the water. In 1680, a young kraken periſhed among the rocks and cliffs of the pariſh of Alſtahong; and his death was attended with ſuch a ſtench, that the channel where he died was impaſſable. Without entering into any romantic theories, we may ſafely ſay, that the exiſtence of this fiſh accounts for many of the phænomena of floating iſlands, and tranſitory appearances in the ſea, that have hitherto been held as fabulous by the learned, who could have no idea of ſuch an animal.

The mer-men and mer-women hold their reſidence in the Norwegian ſeas; but I cannot give credit to all that is related concerning them by the natives. The mer-man is about eight ſpans long, and, undoubtedly, has as much reſemblance as an ape has to the human ſpecies; a high forehead, little eyes, a flat noſe, and large mouth, without chin or ears, characteriſe its head; its arms are ſhort. but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members reſembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane; the parts of generation indicate their ſexes; though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like thoſe of fiſhes. The females have breaſts, at which they ſuckle their young ones. It would far exceed the bounds allotted to this article, to follow the Norwegian adventurers through all the different deſcriptions which they have given us of their fiſhes; but they are ſo well authenticated, that I make no doubt a new and very ſurpriſing theory of aquatic animals may in time be formed.

CURIOSITIES.] Thoſe of Norway are only natural. On the coaſt, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex or whirlpool, called by navigators the navel of the ſea, and by ſome Maleſtrom, or Moſkoeſtrom. The iſland Moſkoe, from whence this ſtream derives its name, lies between the mountain Heſſeggen in Lofoden, and the iſland Ver, which are about one league diſtant; and between the iſland and coaſt on each ſide, the ſtream makes its way. Between Moſkoe and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moſkoe and Ver, it is ſo ſhallow as not to afford paſſage for a ſmall ſhip. When it is flood, the ſtream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moſkoe with a boiſterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the ſea with a violence and noiſe unequalled by the loudeſt cataracts. It is heard at the diſtance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth or extent, ſo violent, that if a ſhip comes near it, it is immediately drawn irreſiſtibly into the whirl, and there diſappears, being abſorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is daſhed to pieces againſt the rocks; and juſt at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes ſtill for about a quarter of an hour, it riſes again in ſcattered fragments, ſcarcely to be known for the parts of a ſhip. When it is agitated by a ſtorm, it has reached veſſels at the diſtance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themſelves in perfect ſecurity. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a ſituation of more horror than that of being thus driven forward by the ſudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the vortex of the whirlpool, of which the noiſe and turbulence, ſtill increaſing as it is approached, are an earneſt of quick and inevitable deſtruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of deſpair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impoſſible, and ſee before them the dreadful abyſs into which they are to be plunged, and daſhed among the rocks at the bottom.

Even

Even animals, which have come too near the vortex, have expreſſed the utmoſt terror when they find the ſtream irreſiſtible. Whales are frequently carried away; and the moment they feel the force of the water, they ſtruggle againſt it with all their might, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to ſwim to the iſland to prey upon the ſheep.

It was the opinion of Kircher, that the Maleſtrom is a ſea vortex, which attracts the flood under the ſhore of Norway, and diſcharges it again in the gulph of Bothnia; but this opinion it now known to be erroneous, by the return of the ſhattered fragments of whatever happens to be ſucked down by it. The large ſtems of firs and pines riſe again ſo ſhivered and ſplintered that the pieces look as if covered with briſtles. The whole phænomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flow, occaſioned by the contraction of the ſtream in its courſe between the rocks.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY. The Norwegians are a middling kind of people, between the ſimplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more poliſhed manners of the Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have biſhops as thoſe of Denmark, without temporal juriſdiction. Their viceroy, like his maſter, is abſolute: but the farmers and common people in Norway are much leſs oppreſſed than thoſe in Denmark.

The Norwegians in general are ſtrong, robuſt, and brave; but quick in reſenting real or ſuppoſed injuries. The women are handſome and courteous, and the Norwegian forms, both of living and enjoying property, are mild, and greatly reſembling the Saxon anceſtors of the preſent Engliſh. Every inhabitant is an artiſan, and ſupplies his family in all its neceſſaries with his own manufactures; ſo that in Norway there are few by profeſſion who are hatters, ſhoe-makers, tailors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, ſmiths, or joiners. The loweſt Norwegian peaſant is an artiſt and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oat-meal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary ſhifts for ſupplying the place of bread or farinaceous food. The manners of the middling Norwegians form a proper ſubject for contemplation even to a philoſopher, as they lead that kind of life which we may ſay is furniſhed with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury: and this middle ſtate prolongs their ages ſurpriſingly. Though their dreſs is in many reſpects accommodated to their climate, yet, by cuſtom, inſtead of guarding againſt the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expoſe themſelves to cold, without any cover upon their breaſts or necks. A Norwegian of an hundred years of age is not accounted paſt his labour; and in 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Daniſh majeſty at Fredericſhall, whoſe ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain veſtiges of their former paganiſm: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpſe is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In ſome places the mourners aſk the dead perſon why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other ſuch queſtions; frequently kneeling down and aſking forgiveneſs, if ever they had offended the deceaſed.

COMMERCE.] We have little to add to this head, different from what will be obſerved in our account of Denmark. The duties on their exports, moſt of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rixdollars a year.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the beſt calculations, Norway can furniſh out 14,000 excellent ſeamen, and above 30,000 brave ſoldiers for

the uſe of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 200,000l. and till his preſent majeſty's acceſſion, the army, inſtead of being expenſive, added conſiderably to his income, by the ſubſidies it brought him in from foreign princes.

HISTORY.] We muſt refer to Denmark likewiſe for this head. The ancient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardieſt ſeamen in the world. If we are to believe their hiſtories, they were no ſtrangers to America long before it was diſcovered by Columbus. Many cuſtoms of their anceſtors are yet diſcernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent deſcents, and ſome ſettlements, which are generally confounded with thoſe of the Danes. From their being the moſt turbulent, they are become now the moſt loyal ſubjects in Europe; which we can eaſily account for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a ſeparate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their hiſtory, as well as intereſts, are the ſame with thoſe of Denmark.

DENMARK* PROPER, or JUTLAND, excluſive of the ISLANDS in the BALTIC.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

MILES.		DEGREES.
Length - - - - 240†	between	54 and 38 North latitude.
Breadth - - - - 114	between	8 and 11 Eaſt longitude.

Containing 15,744 ſquare miles, with 139 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. } IT is divided on the North from Norway by the Scaggerac ſea, and from Sweden on the Eaſt by the Sound: on the South by Germany and the Baltic; and the German ſea divides it from Great Britain on the Weſt.

Denmark Proper is divided into two parts; the peninſula of Jutland, anciently called *Cimbrica Cherſoneſus*, and the iſlands at the entrance of the Baltic mentioned in the table. It is remarkable, that though all theſe together conſtitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet not any one of them is ſeparately called by that name. Copenhagen, the metropolis, is in the iſland of Zealand.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, STATE OF AGRICULTURE, &c.] One of the largeſt and moſt fertile of all the provinces of this kingdom is Jutland, which produces abundance of all ſorts of grain and paſturage, and is a kind of magazine for Norway on all occaſions. A great number of ſmall cattle are bred in this province, and afterwards tranſported into Holſtein, to be fed for the uſe of Hamburgh, Lubec, and Amſterdam. Jutland is every where interſperſed with hills, and on the eaſt ſide has fine woods of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees; but the weſt ſide being leſs woody, the inhabitants are obliged to uſe turf and heath for fuel. Zealand is for the moſt part a ſandy ſoil, but rather fertile in grain and paſturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes of water. The climate is more temperate here on account of the vapours from the ſurrounding ſea, than

* See Mallet's Denmark, p. 1 to 18. vol. v.

† Meaning where longeſt and broadeſt,—a method which the author has every where obſerved; and it ſeems to be the practice of other writers on theſ ubject. Great allowances muſt therefore be made in moſt countries, as the readers will perceive by looking on the maps. Jutland, for inſtance, is 114 miles where broadeſt, though in ſundry other parts it is not 50.

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its is in many more ſoutherly parts of Europe. Spring and autumn are ſeaſons ſcarcely known in Denmark, on account of the ſudden tranſitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, which diſtinguiſh the climate of this kingdom. In all the northern provinces of Denmark, the winters are very ſevere, ſo that the inhabitants often paſs arms of the ſea in ſledges upon the ice; and during the winter all the harbours are frozen up.

The greateſt part of the lands in Denmark and Holſtein are fiefs; and the ancient nobility, by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, gained ſuch power over the farmers, and thoſe who reſided upon their eſtates, that at length they reduced them to a ſtate of extreme ſlavery, ſo that they were bought and ſold with their lands, and were eſteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders of Sleſwick and Holſtein have the power of life and death. The ſituation of the farmers has, indeed, been made ſomewhat more agreeable by ſome modern edicts; but they are ſtill, if ſuch an expreſſion may be allowed, chained to their farms, and are diſpoſed of at the will of their lords. When a farmer in Denmark or Holſtein happens to be an induſtrious man, and is ſituated upon a poor farm, which by great diligence he has laboured to cultivate advantageouſly, as ſoon as he has performed the toilſome taſk, and expects to reap the profits of what he has ſown, his lord, under pretence of taking it into his own hands, removes him from that farm to another of his poor farms, and expects that he ſhould perform the ſame laborious taſk there, without any other emolument than what he ſhould think proper to give him. This has been ſo long the practice in this country, that it neceſſarily throws the greateſt damp upon the efforts of induſtry, and prevents thoſe improvements in agriculture which would otherwiſe be introduced: the conſequence of which is, that nine parts in ten of the inhabitants are in a ſtate of great poverty. But if the farmers had a ſecurity for their property, the lands of Denmark might have been cultivated to much greater advantage than they are at preſent, and a much greater number of people ſupported by the produce of agriculture.

ANIMALS.] Denmark produces an excellent breed of horſes, both for the ſaddle and carriage; about 5000 are ſold annually out of the country, and of the horned cattle, 300,000. Beſides numbers of black cattle, they have ſheep, hogs, and game; and the ſea coaſts are generally well ſupplied with fiſh.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] By an actual numeration made in 1759, of his Daniſh majeſty's ſubjects in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holſtein, the iſlands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorſt in Weſtphalia, they were ſaid to amount to 2,444,000 ſouls, excluſive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. The moſt accurate account of the population is that made under the direction of the famous Struenſee; by which,

Jutland numbered - - -	358,136	Iceland - - - - - - - - -	46,201
Zealand - - - - - - - - -	283,466	Duchy of Sleſwick - - -	243,605
Funen - - - - - - - - - -	143,988	Duchy of Holſtein - - -	134,665
Norway - - - - - - - - -	723,141	Oldenburgh - - - - - -	62,854
Iſlands of Ferro - - - - -	4,754	Delmenhorſt - - - - - - -	16,217
		Sum total	2,017,027

Several of the ſmaller iſlands included in the diſtrict of Fionia are omitted in this computation, which may contain a few thouſands.

However diſproportioned this number may ſeem to the extent of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, yet, every thing conſidered, it is far greater than

than could have been expected from the uncultivated ſtate of his poſſeſſions. But the trade of Denmark hath been ſo ſhackled by the corruption and arbitrary proceedings of her miniſters, and her merchants are ſo terrified by the deſpotiſm of her government, that this kingdom, which might be rendered rich and flouriſhing, is at preſent one of the moſt indigent and diſtreſſed ſtates in Europe; and theſe circumſtances prevent Denmark from being ſo populous as it otherwiſe would be, if the adminiſtration of government were more mild and equitable, and if proper encouragement were given to foreigners, and to thoſe who engage in agricultural and other arts.

The ancient inhabitants of Denmark poſſeſſed a degree of courage which approached even to ferocity; but by a continual ſeries of tyranny and oppreſſion, their national character is much changed, and from a brave, enterpriſing, and warlike people, they are become indolent, timid, and dull of apprehenſion. They value themſelves extremely upon thoſe titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, and are exceedingly fond of pomp and ſhow. They endeavour to imitate the French in their manners, dreſs, and even in their gallantry; though they are naturally the very contraſt of that nation. They fall much into the indolence and timidity which form a conſiderable part of the character of the modern Danes; but in other reſpects are well-meaning people, and acquit themſelves properly in their reſpective employments. The Danes, like other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who begin now to viſit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their provincial habits and vices.

RELIGION.] The religion is Lutheran; and the kingdom is divided into ſix dioceſes: one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland; beſides four in Norway and two in Iceland. Theſe dioceſes are governed by biſhops, whoſe profeſſion is entirely to ſuperintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminency than a diſtinction of their eccleſiaſtical dreſs; for they have neither cathedrals nor eccleſiaſtical courts, nor the ſmalleſt concern with civil affairs: their morals, however, are ſo good, that they are revered by the people. They are paid by the ſtate, as all the church-lands were wiſely appropriated to the government at the reformation.

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are ſpoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in the Engliſh, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen as a neceſſary part of education. A company of Engliſh comedians occaſionally viſit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement.

The univerſity of Copenhagen has funds for the gratuitous ſupport of 328 ſtudents; theſe funds are ſaid to amount to 300,000 rix-dollars; but the Danes in general make no great figure in literature; though aſtronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, and the Bartholines: and the Round Tower and Chriſtian's Haven diſplay the mechanical genius of a Longomontanus: not to mention that the Danes begin now to make ſome promiſing attempts in hiſtory, poetry, and the drama. It appears, however, that in general, literature receives very little countenance or encouragement in Denmark; which may be conſidered as the principal cauſe of its being ſo little cultivated by the Danes.

CITIES AND CHIEF BUILDINGS.] Copenhagen, which is ſituated on the fine iſland of Zealand, was originally a ſettlement of ſailors, and firſt founded by ſome wandering fiſhermen in the twelfth century, but is now the metropolis, and makes a magnificent appearance at a diſtance. It is very

very ſtrong, and defended by four royal caſtles or forts. It contains ten pariſh churches, beſides nine others belonging to the Calviniſts and other perſuaſions, and ſome hoſpitals. Copenhagen is adorned by ſome public and private palaces, as they are called. Its ſtreets are 186 in number: and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houſes in the principal ſtreets are built of brick, and thoſe in the lanes chiefly of timber. Its univerſity has been already mentioned. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which admits indeed but only one ſhip to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the ſtreets have canals, and quays for ſhips to lie cloſe to the houſes; and its naval arſenal is ſaid to exceed that of Venice. The road for ſhipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as the difficulty of the navigation. But notwithſtanding all theſe advantages, there is little appearance of induſtry or trade in this city; and Copenhagen, though one of the fineſt ports in the world, can boaſt of little commerce. The public places are filled with officers either in the land or ſea ſervice; and the number of forces kept up is much too large for this little kingdom. The police of Copenhagen is extremely regular, and people may walk through the whole city at midnight with great ſafety. Indeed, it is uſually almoſt as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village, and, at that time, there is ſcarcely a coach heard to rattle through the ſtreets.

The apartments of the palace at Copenhagen are grand, and the tapeſtry in many of them beautiful, particularly the ſtory of Eſther, and an aſſortment of wild beaſts, after the manner of Quida. A colonnade at each extremity forms the ſtables, which for their extent and beauty of furniture are equal to any in Europe. But the fineſt palace belonging to his Daniſh majeſty lies about 20 Engliſh miles from Copenhagen, and is called Frederickſburgh. It is a very large building, moated round with a triple ditch, and calculated, like moſt of the ancient reſidences of princes, for defence againſt an enemy. It was built by Chriſtian IVth, and, according to the architecture of the times, partakes of the Greek and Gothic ſtyles. In the front of the grand quadrangle, appear Tuſcan and Doric pillars, and on the ſummit of the building are ſpires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very ſplendid, though furniſhed in the antique taſte. The Knights' hall is of great length. The tapeſtry repreſents the wars of Denmark, and the ceiling is a moſt minute and laboured performance in ſculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of ſilver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even beſieged the capital, tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithſtanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. The late unhappy queen Matilda ſpent much of her time at this palace, during the king's tour through Europe. About two miles from Elſineur is another ſmall royal palace, flat roofed, with twelve windows in front, ſaid to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father. In an adjoining garden is ſhown the very ſpot where, according to tradition, that prince was poiſoned.

Jagerſburgh is a park which contains a royal country ſeat, called the Hermitage, which is remarkable for the diſpoſition of its apartments and the quaintneſs of its furniture, particularly a machine which conveys the diſhes to and from the king's table in the ſecond ſtory. The chief eccleſiaſtical building in Denmark is the cathedral of Roſchild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments ſtill remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered paſſage, is a royal palace, built in 1733. Elſineur is well built, contains 5000 inhabitants, and, with reſpect to commerce, is only exceeded by Copenhagen. It is ſtrongly for-

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tified on the land ſide, and towards the ſea is defended by a ſtrong fort, containing ſeveral batteries of long cannon. Here all veſſels pay a toll, and, in paſſing, lower their top-ſails.

COMMERCE.] Denmark is extremely well ſituated for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ſhips of all burdens, and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different parts of the ocean. The dominions of his Daniſh majeſty alſo ſupply a great variety of timber and other materials for ſhip-building; and ſome of his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Among theſe, beſide fir and other timber, are black cattle, horſes, butter, ſtock-fiſh, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, which being the natural product of the Daniſh dominions, are conſequently ranked under the head of exports. To theſe we may add furs; but the exportation of oats is forbidden. The imports are, ſalt, wine, brandy and ſilk from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had great intercourſe with England, and from thence they import broad cloths, clocks, cabinet, lockwork, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England; but nothing ſhows the commercial ſpirit of the Danes in a more favourable light than their eſtabliſhments in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies.

In 1612, Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, eſtabliſhed an Eaſt India company at Copenhagen: and ſoon after four ſhips ſailed from thence to the Eaſt Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Daniſh majeſty by James I. of England, who married a princeſs of Denmark; and in 1617, they built and fortified a caſtle and town at Tranquebar, on the coaſt of Coromandel. The ſecurity which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort invited numbers of them to ſettle here; ſo that the Daniſh Eaſt India company were ſoon rich enough to pay their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. The company, however, willing to become rich all of a ſudden, in 1620 endeavoured to poſſeſs themſelves of the ſpice-trade at Ceylon, but were defeated by the Portugueſe. The truth is, they ſoon embroiled themſelves with the native Indians on all hands; and had it not been for the generous aſſiſtance given them by Mr. Pitt, an Engliſh Eaſt India governor, the ſettlement at Tranquebar muſt have been taken by the Rajah of Tanjour. Upon the cloſe of the wars in Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Daniſh Eaſt India company found themſelves ſo much in debt, that they publiſhed propoſals for a new ſubſcription for enlarging their ancient capital ſtock, and for fitting out ſhips to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after, his Daniſh majeſty granted a new charter to his Eaſt India company, with vaſt privileges; and for ſome time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. I ſhall juſt mention, that the Danes likewiſe poſſeſs the iſland of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the ſmall iſland of St. John, in the Weſt Indies, which are free ports, and celebrated for ſmuggling; alſo the fort of Chriſtianburg on the coaſt of Guinea; and carry on a conſiderable commerce with the Mediterranean.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark Proper affords fewer of theſe than the other parts of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, if we except the contents of the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen, which conſiſts of a numerous collection of both. It contains ſeveral good paintings, and a fine collection of coins, particularly thoſe of the conſuls in the time of the Roman republic, and of the emperors after the ſeat of empire was divided into the Eaſt and Weſt. Beſides artificial ſkeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Daniſh artiſt who was blind, here are to be ſeen two famous antique drinking veſſels; the one of gold, the other of ſilver, and both of the form of a hunt-

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ing horn; that of gold ſeems to be of pagan manufacture; and from the raiſed hieroglyphical figures on its outſide, it probably was made uſe of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two Engliſh pints and a half, and was found in the dioceſe of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of ſilver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; which they ſay was preſented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburgh, by a ghoſt. Some, however, are of opinion that this veſſel was made by order of Chriſtian I. king of Denmark, the firſt of the Oldenburgh race, who reigned in 1448. I ſhall juſt mention in this place that ſeveral veſſels of different metals, and the ſame form, have been found in the North of England, and are probably of Daniſh original. This muſeum is likewiſe furniſhed with a prodigious number of aſtronomical, optical, and mathematical inſtruments, ſome Indian curioſities, and a ſet of medals, ancient and modern. Many curious aſtronomical inſtruments are likewiſe placed in the round tower at Copenhagen, which is ſo contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flenſburgh and Sleſwick, is alſo eſteemed a curioſity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great-Britain, and the anceſtors of the bulk of the modern Engliſh.

The greateſt rarities in his Daniſh majeſty's dominions are omitted, however, by geographers; I mean thoſe ancient inſcriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquaries and hiſtorians, and are generally thought to be the old and original manner of writing, before the uſe of paper of any kind, or waxen tablets, was known. Theſe characters are Runic, and ſo imperfectly underſtood by the learned themſelves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be hiſtorical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo-Grammaticus, has exhibited ſpecimens of ſeveral of thoſe inſcriptions.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS. } The ancient conſtitution of Denmark was originally much upon the ſame plan with other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election; and, in conjunction with the ſenate, where he preſided, was inveſted with the executive power. He likewiſe commanded the army, and decided finally all the diſputes which aroſe between his ſubjects. The legiſlative power, together with the right of election of the king, was veſted in the ſtates, who were compoſed, firſt, of the order of nobility, and ſecondly, the order of the citizens and farmers; and after the Chriſtian religion had gained ground in the North, the clergy were alſo admitted, not only to be an order of the ſtates, but to have ſeats likewiſe in the ſenate. Theſe orders had their reſpective rights and privileges, and were independent of each other; the crown had alſo its prerogatives, and a certain fixed revenue ariſing out of lands which were appropriated to its ſupport. This conſtitution had many evident advantages: but, unfortunately, the balance of this government was never properly adjuſted; ſo that the nobles very ſoon aſſumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppreſſed the people, as the national aſſemblies were not regularly held to redreſs their grievances. And when the Roman Catholic clergy came to have a ſhare in the civil government, they far ſurpaſſed the nobility in pride and ambition. The repreſentatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who forced the crown to give up its prerogatives, and to oppreſs and tyranniſe over the people. Chriſtian the Second, by endeavouring in an imprudent manner to ſtem the torrent of their oppreſſion, loſt his crown and his liberty; but Chriſtian the Third, by uniting himſelf with the nobles and the ſenate, deſtroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppreſſion of the common people by the nobility ſtill remained. At

length,

length, in the reign of Frederic the Third, the people, inſtead of exerting themſelves to remedy the defects of the conſtitution, and to maintain their common liberties, were ſo infatuated as to make the king deſpotic, in hopes thereby of rendering themſelves leſs ſubject to the tyranny of the nobility. A ſeries of unſucceſsful wars had brought the nation in general into ſo miſerable a condition, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The diſpute came to a ſhort queſtion, which was, that the nobles ſhould ſubmit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people upon this threw their eyes towards the king, for relief and protection from the oppreſſions of the intermediate order of nobility: in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the ſtates, it was propoſed that the nobles ſhould bear their ſhare in the common burden. Upon this, Otta Craeg put the people in mind that the commons were no more than *ſlaves* to the lords.

This was the watch-word which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itſelf. Nanſon, the ſpeaker of the commons, catched hold of the term *ſlavery*; the aſſembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a houſe of their own, where they reſolved to make the king a ſolemn tender of their liberties and ſervices, and formally to eſtabliſh in his family the hereditary ſucceſſion to their crown. This reſolution was executed the next day. The biſhop of Copenhagen officiated as ſpeaker for the clergy and commons. The king accepted of their tender, promiſing them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were ſhut; and the nobility, finding the nerves of their power thus cut, ſubmitted with the beſt grace they could to confirm what had been done.

On the 10th of January, 1661, the three orders of nobility, clergy, and people, ſigned each a ſeparate act, by which they conſented that the crown ſhould be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and by which they inveſted the king with abſolute power, and gave him the right to regulate the ſucceſſion, and the regency, in caſe of a minority. This renunciation of their right, ſubſcribed by the firſt nobility, is ſtill preſerved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family,—a relic, which perpetuates the memory of the humbled inſolence of the nobles, and the hypocriſy of the prince, who, to gratify his revenge againſt them, perſuaded the people that his only wiſhes were to repair a decayed edifice, and then excited them to pull it to the ground, cruſhing themſelves under its ruins.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark diveſted the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; but he took no method to relieve thoſe poor people who had been the inſtruments of inveſting him with the ſovereign power, but left them in the ſame ſtate of ſlavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the preſent age. When the revolution in the reign of Frederic the Third had been effected, the king re-united in his perſon all the rights of the ſovereign power; but as he could not exerciſe all by himſelf, he was obliged to intruſt ſome part of the executive power to his ſubjects; the ſupreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace of Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal preſident. What they call the German provinces, have likewiſe their ſupreme tribunal; which, for the duchy of Holſtein, is holden at Gluckſtadt; and for the duchy of Sleſwick, in the town of that name.

As to matters of importance, the king for the moſt part decides in his council, the members of which are named and diſplaced at his will. It is in this council that the laws are propoſed, diſcuſſed, and receive the royal

authority,

authority, and that any great changes or eſtabliſhments are propoſed, and approved or rejected by the king. It is here likewiſe, or in the cabinet, that he grants privileges, and decides upon the explication of laws, their extenſion, or their reſtriction; and, in fact, it is here that the king expreſſes his will upon the moſt important affairs of his kingdom.

In this kingdom, as in many others, the king is ſuppoſed to be preſent to adminiſter juſtice in the ſupreme court of his kingdom; and, therefore, the kings of Denmark not only preſide nominally in the ſovereign court of juſtice, but they have a throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers always addreſs their diſcourſes in pleading, and the judges the ſame in giving their opinion. Every year the king is preſent at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges ſuch inſtructions as he thinks proper. The deciſion of theſe judges is final in all civil actions; but no criminal ſentence of a capital nature can be carried into execution till it is ſigned by the king.

There are many excellent regulations for the adminiſtration of juſtice in Denmark; but, notwithſtanding this, it is ſo far from being diſtributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can ſcarcely ever have juſtice in this country againſt one of the nobility, or againſt one who is favoured by the court or by the chief miniſter. If the laws are ſo clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are aſhamed to decide againſt them, the latter, through the favour of the miniſter, obtains an order from the king to ſtop all the law proceedings, or a diſpenſation from obſerving particular laws; and there the matter ends. The code of laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Denmark was publiſhed by Chriſtian V. founded upon the code of Valdemar, and all the other codes which have ſince been publiſhed, and is nearly the ſame with that publiſhed in Norway. Theſe laws are very juſt and clear; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial conſequences to the people. But as the king can change and alter the laws, and diſpenſe with them as he pleaſes, and ſupport his miniſters and favourites in any acts of violence and injuſtice, the people of Denmark undergo a great degree of tyranny and oppreſſion, and have abundant reaſon to regret the tameneſs and ſervility with which their liberties have been ſurrendered into the hands of their monarchs.

The peaſants, till 1787, had been in a ſituation little better than the brute creation; they ſcarce could be ſaid to poſſeſs any loco-motive power, inſomuch that they had no liberty to leave one eſtate, and to ſettle on another, without the purchaſed permiſſion from their maſters; and if they chanced to move without their permiſſion, they were claimed as ſtrayed cattle. Such was the ſtate of thoſe wretched beings, who, at beſt, only might be ſaid to vegetate. Theſe chains of feudal ſlavery were now broken, through the intereſt of his royal highneſs, the prince and heir apparent to the crown; and the priſoners, for ſuch I think they might be called, were declared free. Notwithſtanding the remonſtrances, which were made againſt this by the landed gentry, were very numerous, yet, after a minute examination of the whole, an edict was iſſued which reſtores the peaſants to their long-loſt liberty, which once contributed ſo much to the glory of the ſtate: added to this, a number of grievances, under which the peaſantry laboured, were aboliſhed.

PUNISHMENTS.] The common method of execution in Denmark is beheading and hanging: in ſome caſes, as an aggravation of the puniſhment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the ſentence is executed. For the moſt atrocious crimes, ſuch as the murder of a father or mother, huſband or wife, and robbery upon the highway, the male-

factor is broken upon the wheel. But capital punifhments are not common in Denmark; and the other principal modes of punifhment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the rafp-houfe, to houfes of correction, and to public labour and impriſonment; all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

POLITICAL AND NATURAL HISTORY OF DENMARK. After the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, his court ſeemed for ſome time to have altered its maxims. His father, it is true, obſerved a moſt reſpectable neutrality during the late war, but never could get rid of French influence, notwithſtanding his connections with Great-Britain. The ſubſidies he received maintained his army; but his family-diſputes with Ruſſia concerning Holſtein, and the aſcendency which the French had obtained over the Swedes (not to mention many other matters), did not ſuffer him to act that deciſive part in the affairs of Europe, to which he was invited by his ſituation, eſpecially about the time when the treaty of Cloſter-Seven was concluded. His preſent Daniſh majeſty's plan ſeemed, ſoon after his acceſſion, to be that of forming his dominions into a ſtate of independency, by availing himſelf of their natural advantages. But ſundry events which have ſince happened, and the general feebleneſs of his adminiſtration, have prevented any farther expectations being formed, that the real welfare of Denmark will be promoted, at leaſt in any great degree, during the preſent reign.

With regard to the external intereſts of Denmark, they are certainly beſt ſecured by cultivating a friendſhip with the maritime powers. The exports of Denmark enable her to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; and ſhe has been particularly courted by the Mahometan ſtates, on account of her ſhip-building ſtores.

The preſent imperial family of Ruſſia has many claims upon Denmark, on account of Holſtein; but there is at preſent ſmall appearance of her being engaged in a war on that account. Were the Swedes to regain their military character, and to be commanded by ſo enterpriſing a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repoſſeſs themſelves, by arms, of the fine provinces torn from them by Denmark. But the greateſt danger that can ariſe to Denmark from a foreign power, is when the Baltic ſea (as has happened more than once) is ſo frozen over as to bear not only men but heavy artillery; in which caſe the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conqueſt of the kingdom.

REVENUES.] His Daniſh majeſty's revenues have three ſources: the impoſitions he lays upon his own ſubjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demeſne lands, including confiſcations. Wine, ſalt, tobacco, and proviſions of all kinds, are taxed. Marriages, paper, corporations, land, houſes, and poll-money, alſo raiſe a conſiderable ſum. The expenſes of fortifications are borne by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The reader is to obſerve, that the internal taxes of Denmark are very uncertain, becauſe they may be abated or raiſed at the king's will. Cuſtoms and tolls, upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by ſtrangers ariſe chiefly from foreign ſhips, that paſs through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow ſtrait of half a mile between Schonen and the iſland of Zealand. Theſe tolls are in proportion to the ſize of the ſhip, and value of the cargo exhibited in the bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Daniſh majeſty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often diſputed by the Engliſh and Dutch, being nothing

more

more originally than a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expenſes of the light-houſes on the coaſt; and the Swedes, who command the oppoſite ſide of the paſs, for ſome time refuſed to pay it: but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majeſty George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the ſame rates as are paid by the ſubjects of Great-Britain and the Netherlands. The firſt treaty relative to it was by the emperor Charles V. on behalf of his ſubjects in the Low Countries. The toll is paid at Elſineur, a town ſituated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic Sea, and about 18 miles diſtant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elſineur, amounts at preſent to above 5,000,000 of rix-dollars, or 1,002,000l. ſterling yearly.

The following is a liſt of the king's revenues, excluſive of his private eſtates:

	Rix-dollars at 4s. each.
Tribute of hard corn, or land-tax	1,000,000
Small taxes, including poll-tax, pound rents, exciſe, marriages, &c.	950,000
Cuſtom-houſe duties	154,000
Duties of the Sound	200,000
Duties of Jutland, from ſalt-pits	27,000
Tithes and poll-tax of Norway	770,000
Tolls of Bergen, Drontheim, Chriſtianſand, and Chriſtiana	160,000
Other tolls	552,000
Revenue from mines	300,000
Revenue from Sleſwick, Holſtein, Oldenburgh, and Delmenhorſt	690,000
Taxes on acorns and maſt from beech	20,000
Tolls on the Weſer	7,500
Poſt-office	70,000
Farms of Iceland and Ferro	35,000
Farms of Bornholm	14,800
Oyſter Fiſhery	22,000
Stamp paper	40,000
Sum total,	5,012,300
In Engliſh money, £.	1,002,460

By a liſt of the revenue taken in 1730, it then only amounted to Engliſh money £ 454,700.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three laſt kings of Denmark, notwithſtanding the degeneracy of the people in martial affairs, were very reſpectable princes, by the number and diſcipline of their troops, which they kept up with vaſt care. The preſent military force of Denmark conſiſts of 70,000 men, cavalry and infantry, the greateſt part of which conſiſts of a militia who receive no pay, but are regiſtered on the army-liſt, and every Sunday exerciſed. The regular troops are about 20,000, and moſtly foreigners, or moſt of whom are officered by foreigners; for Frederic III. was too refined a politician to truſt his ſecurity in the hands of thoſe he had tricked out of their liberty. Though this army is extremely burdenſome to the nation, yet it coſts little to the crown: great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter; and in Denmark the peaſantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furniſh them with money. The pre-

ſent fleet of Denmark is compoſed of 36 ſhips of the line, and 18 frigates: but many of the ſhips being old, and wanting great repairs, if they can ſend out 25 ſhips upon the greateſt emergency, this is ſuppoſed to be the moſt they can do. This fleet is generally ſtationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, ſtore-houſes, and all the materials neceſſary for the uſe of the marine. They have 26,000 regiſtered ſeamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor ſerve on board a merchantman without permiſſion from the admiralty; 4000 of theſe are kept in conſtant pay, and employed in the dock-yards; their pay, however, ſcarcely amounts to nine ſhillings per month; but then they have a ſort of uniform, with ſome proviſions and lodging allowed for themſelves and families.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK.] Theſe are two; that of the *Elephant*, and that of *Daneburg*. The former was inſtituted by Chriſtian I. in the year 1478, and is deemed the moſt honourable; its badge is an elephant ſurmounted with a caſtle, ſet in diamonds, and ſuſpended to a ſky-blue watered ribbon; worn like the George in England over the right ſhoulder: the number of its members, beſide the ſovereign, are thirty, and the knights of it are addreſſed by the title of excellency. The badges of the Daneburg order, which is ſaid to be of the higheſt antiquity, (inſtituted in the year 1219, but it became obſolete, and was revived in 1671 by Chriſtian V.) conſiſt of a white ribbon with red edges, worn ſcarf-ways over the right ſhoulder; from which depends a ſmall croſs of diamonds, and an embroidered ſtar on the breaſt of the coat, ſurrounded with the motto, *Pietate et juſtitia*. The badge is a croſs pattee enamelled white, on the centre the letter C and 5 crowned with a regal crown, and this motto, *Reſtitutor*. The number of knights is numerous, and not limited.

HISTORY.] We owe the chief hiſtory of Denmark to a very extraordinary phænomenon,—the revival of the purity of the Latin language in Scandinavia, in the perſon of Saxo-Grammaticus, at a time (the 12th century) when it was loſt in all other parts of the European continent. Saxo, like the other hiſtorians of his age, had adopted, and at the ſame time ennobled by his ſtyle, the moſt ridiculous abſurdities of remote antiquity. We can however collect enough from him to conclude that the ancient Danes, like the Gauls, the Scots, the Iriſh, and other northern nations, had their bards, who recounted the military achievements of their heroes; and that their firſt hiſtories were written in verſe. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians or Cimbri, and the Teutones (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) were Scythians by their original; but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia* or Gaul, formerly reached, is uncertain.

Even the name of the firſt Chriſtian Daniſh king is uncertain; and thoſe of the people whom they commanded were ſo blended together, that it is impoſſible for the reader to conceive a preciſe idea of the old Scandinavian hiſtory. This, undoubtedly, was owing to the remains of their Scythian cuſtoms, particularly that of removing from one country to another; and of ſeveral nations or ſepts joining together in expeditions by ſea or land, and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders.

* By Scythia may be underſtood all thoſe northern countries of Europe and Aſia (now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Ruſſians, and Tartars; ſee the Introduction), whoſe inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued ſo late as the 13th century to iſſue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more ſouthern and fertile kingdoms of Europe. Hence, by ſir William Temple and other hiſtorians, they are termed the *Northern Hive, the Mother of Nations, the Storehouſe of Europe.*

ers. Thus the terms, Danes, Saxons, Jutes or Goths, Germans, and Normans, were promiſcuouſly uſed long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the ſhort revival of literature under that prince throws very little light upon the Daniſh hiſtory. All we know, is that the inhabitants of Scandinávia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers, rude, fierce, and martial; that, ſo far back as the year of Chriſt 500, they inſulted all the ſea-coaſts of Europe; that they ſettled in Ireland, where they built ſtone houſes; and that they became maſters of England, and ſome part of Scotland; both which kingdoms ſtill retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the hiſtory of Denmark and that of England, under the Daniſh princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint reſemblance of events; but the Danes, as conquerors, always give themſelves the ſuperiority over the Engliſh.

In the eleventh century, under Canute the Great, Denmark may be ſaid to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give ſanction to the expreſſion. Few very intereſting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted the throne; and partly by her addreſs, and partly by hereditary right, ſhe formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which ſhe was acknowledged ſovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with ſuch firmneſs and courage, that ſhe was juſtly ſtyled the Semiramis of the North. Her ſucceſſors being deſtitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one ſovereign, fell to nothing; but Norway ſtill continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Chriſtian, count of Oldenburgh, from whom the preſent royal family of Denmark is deſcended.

In 1513, Chriſtan II. king of Denmark, one of the moſt complete tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and having married the ſiſter of the emperor Charles V. he gave a full looſe to his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden for the bloody maſſacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled againſt him likewiſe; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. Frederic, duke of Holſtein, was unanimouſly called to the throne, on the depoſition of his cruel nephew, who openly embraced the opinions of Luther; and about the year 1536, the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed in Denmark by that wiſe and politic prince, Chriſtian III.

Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was choſen for the head of the proteſtant league formed againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but though brave in his own perſon, he was in danger of loſing his dominions; when he was ſucceeded in that command by Guſtavus Adolphus king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Chriſtian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his ſon Frederic III. conſented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, perſuaded him to declare war againſt Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden; which had almoſt coſt him his crown in 1657. Charles ſtormed the fortreſs of Fredericſtadt; and in the ſucceeding winter he marched his army over the ice to the iſland of Funen, where he ſurpriſed the Daniſh troops, took Odenſee and Nyburgh, and marched over the Great Belt to beſiege Copenhagen itſelf. Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interpoſed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roſchild, by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Schonen, the iſland of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic ſought to elude theſe ſevere terms; but Charles took Cronenburgh, and once more beſieged Copenhagen by ſea and land. The ſteady intrepid conduct

of Frederic under theſe misfortunes endeared him to his ſubjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat the Swediſh fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, who ſhowed on every occaſion great abilities, both civil and military; and having forced Charles to raiſe the ſiege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the Engliſh fleet under Montague appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to beſiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital, by which the iſland of Bornholm returned to the Danes; but the iſland of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not reſtore to Denmark all ſhe had loſt, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic under the moſt imminent dangers, and his attention to the ſafety of his ſubjects, even preferably to his own, greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became abſolute, in the manner already related. Frederic was ſucceeded, in 1670, by his ſon Chriſtian V. who obliged the duke of Holſtein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roſchild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen: but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war, which Chriſtian obſtinately continued, till he was defeated entirely at the battle of Landſcroon: and having almoſt exhauſted his dominions in military operations, and being in a manner abandoned by all his allies, he was forced to ſign a treaty, on the terms preſcribed by France, in 1679. Chriſtian, however, did not deſiſt from his military attempts; and at laſt he became the ally and ſubſidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains. Chriſtian, after a vaſt variety of treating and fighting with the Holſteiners, Hamburghers, and other northern powers, died in 1690. He was ſucceeded by Frederic IV. who, like his predeceſſors, maintained his pretenſions upon Holſtein, and probably muſt have become maſter of that duchy, had not the Engliſh and Dutch fleets raiſed the ſiege of Tonningen, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was then no more than ſixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to aſſiſt his brother-in law the duke of Holſtein. Charles probably would have made himſelf maſter of Copenhagen, had not his Daniſh majeſty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himſelf to furniſh a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates, and afterwards did great execution againſt the French in the wars of queen Anne.

Notwithſtanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes; and while Charles XII. was in exile at Bender, he made a deſcent upon the Swediſh Pomerania, and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadeſbuch, who laid his favourite city of Altena in aſhes. Frederic revenged himſelf by ſeizing great part of the Ducal Holſtein, and forcing the Swediſh general, count Steinbock, to ſurrender himſelf priſoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the ſucceſſes of Frederic were ſo great, by taking Tonningen and Stralſund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wiſmar in Pomerania, that his allies began to ſuſpect he was aiming at the ſovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war againſt Denmark with a moſt imbittered ſpirit; but

but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the ſiege of Frederic-ſhal, Frederic durſt not refuſe the offer of his Britannic majeſty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden: in conſequence of which, a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in poſſeſſion of the duchy of Sleſwick. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having two years before ſeen his capital reduced to aſhes by an accidental fire. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Chriſtian Frederic, or Chriſtian VI. made no other uſe of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, whom he eaſed of many oppreſſive taxes.

In 1734, after guarantying the Pragmatic Sanction*, Chriſtian ſent 6000 men to the aſſiſtance of the emperor, during the diſpute of the ſucceſſion to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, eſpecially over Hamburgh. He obliged the Hamburghers to call in the mediation of Pruſſia, to aboliſh their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of ſilver marks. He had, two years after, viz. in 1738, a diſpute with his Britannic majeſty about the little lordſhip of Steinhorſt, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holſtein Lawenburgh, and which Chriſtian ſaid belonged to him. Some blood was ſpilt during the conteſt, in which Chriſtian, it is thought, never was in earneſt. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himſelf of his Britannic majeſty's predilection for his German dominions; for he agreed to pay Chriſtian a ſubſidy of 70,000l. ſterling a year, on condition of keeping in readineſs 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover: this was a gainful bargain for Denmark. And two years after he ſeized ſome Dutch ſhips, for trading without his leave to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Chriſtian had ſo great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his ſon to be declared ſucceſſor to his then Swediſh majeſty. Some ſteps for that purpoſe were certainly taken; but whatever Chriſtian's views might have been, the deſign was fruſtrated by the jealouſy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of ſeeing all Scandinavia ſubject to one family. Chriſtian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His ſon and ſucceſſor, Frederick V. had, in 1743, married the princeſs Louiſa, daughter to his Britannic majeſty George II. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happineſs of his people; but took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. For it was by his intervention that the treaty of Cloſter-Seven was concluded between his royal highneſs the late duke of Cumberland and the French general Richelieu. Upon the death of his firſt queen, who was mother to his preſent Daniſh majeſty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766.

His ſon, Chriſtian VII. was born the 29th of January, 1749; and married his preſent Britannic majeſty's youngeſt ſiſter, the Princeſs Carolina-Matilda. This alliance, though it wore at firſt a very promiſing appearance, had a very unfortunate termination. This is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the preſent king, who has a ſon named Frederic, and whom ſhe is repreſented as deſirous of raiſing to the throne. She poſſeſſes a great degree of diſſimulation; and

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to ſupport the Houſe of Auſtria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male iſſue.

when

when the princeſs Carolina-Matilda came to Copenhagen, ſhe received her with all the appearance of friendſhip and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the ſame time telling her that ſhe would take every opportunity, as a mother, to aſſiſt her in reclaiming him. By this conduct ſhe became the depoſitary of all the young queen's ſecrets, whilſt at the ſame time it is ſaid ſhe placed people about the king, to keep him conſtantly engaged in all kinds of riot or debauchery, to which ſhe knew he was naturally too much inclined; and at length it was ſo ordered, that a miſtreſs was thrown in the king's way, whom he was perſuaded to keep in his palace. When the king was upon his travels, the queen-dowager uſed frequently to viſit the young queen Matilda, and, under the maſk of friendſhip and affection, told her often of the debaucheries and exceſſes which the king had fallen into in Holland, England, and France, and often perſuaded her not to live with him. But as ſoon as the king returned, the queen reproaching him with his conduct, though in a gentle manner, his mother-in-law immediately took his part, and endeavoured to perſuade the king to give no ear to her counſels, as it was preſumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king. Queen Matilda now began to diſcover the deſigns of the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon very good terms with the king, who for a time was much reclaimed. The young queen alſo now aſſumed to herſelf the part which the queen-dowager had been complimented with in the management of public affairs. This ſtung the old queen to the quick; and her thoughts were now entirely occupied with ſchemes of revenge. She at length found means to gratify it in a very ample manner. About the end of the year 1770, it was obſerved that Brandt and Struenſee were particularly regarded by the king: the former as a favourite, and the latter as a miniſter, and that they paid great court to queen Matilda, and were ſupported by her. This opened a new ſcene of intrigue at Copenhagen; all the diſcarded placemen paid their court to the queen-dowager, and ſhe became the head and patroneſs of the party. Old count Molke, an artful diſplaced ſtateſman, and others who were well verſed in intrigues of this nature, perceiving that they had unexperienced young perſons to contend with, who, though they might mean well, had not ſufficient knowledge and capacity to conduct the public affairs, very ſoon predicted their ruin. Struenſee and Brandt wanted to make a reform in the adminiſtration of public affairs at once, which ſhould have been the work of time; and thereby made a great number of enemies, among thoſe whoſe intereſt it was that things ſhould continue upon the ſame footing that they had been for ſome time before. After this queen Matilda was delivered of a daughter, but as ſoon as the queen-dowager ſaw her, ſhe immediately turned back, and, with a malicious ſmile, declared that the child had all the features of Struenſee: on which her friends publiſhed it among the people, that the queen muſt have had an intrigue with Struenſee; which was corroborated by the queen's often ſpeaking with this miniſter in public. A great variety of evil reports were now propagated againſt the reigning queen; and another report was alſo induſtriouſly ſpread, that the governing party had formed a deſign to ſuperſede the king, as being incapable of governing; that the queen was to be declared regent during the minority of her ſon; and that Struenſee was to be her prime miniſter. Whatever Struenſee did to reform the abuſes of the late miniſtry, was repreſented to the people as ſo many attacks upon, and attempts to deſtroy, the government of the kingdom. By ſuch means the people began to be greatly incenſed againſt this miniſter: and as he alſo wanted to make a reform in the military, he gave great offence to the troops, at the head

of which were ſome of the creatures of the queen-dowager, who took every opportunity to make their inferior officers believe that it was the deſign of Struenſee to change the whole ſyſtem of government. It muſt be admitted that this miniſter ſeems in many reſpects to have acted very imprudently, and to have been too much under the guidance of his paſſions; his principles alſo appear to have been of the libertine kind.

Many councils were held between the queen-dowager and her friends, upon the proper meaſures to be taken for effectuating their deſigns: and it was at length reſolved to ſurpriſe the king in the middle of the night, and force him immediately to ſign an order, which was to be prepared in readineſs, for committing the perſons before mentioned to ſeparate priſons, to accuſe them of high treaſon in general, and in particular of a deſign to poiſon or dethrone the king: and that if that could not be properly ſupported, by torture or otherwiſe, to procure witneſſes to confirm the report of a criminal commerce between the queen and Struenſee. This was an undertaking of ſo hazardous a nature, that the wary count Molke, and moſt of the queen-dowager's friends, who had any thing to loſe, drew back, endeavouring to animate others, but excuſing themſelves from taking any open and active part in this affair. However the queen-dowager at laſt procured a ſufficient number of active inſtruments for the execution of her deſigns. On the 16th of January, 1772, a maſked ball was given at the court of Denmark. The king had danced at this ball, and afterwards played at quadrille with general Gahler, his lady, and counſellor Struenſee, brother to the count. The queen, after dancing as uſual one country-dance with the king, gave her hand to count Struenſee during the remainder of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. About four the ſame morning, prince Frederic, who had alſo been at the ball, got up and dreſſed himſelf, and went with the queen-dowager to the king's bed-chamber, accompanied by general Eichſtedt, and count Rantzau. They ordered his majeſty's valet-de-chambre to awake him, and in the midſt of the ſurpriſe and alarm that this unexpected intruſion excited, they informed him that queen Matilda and the two Struenſees were at that inſtant buſy in drawing up an act of renunciation of the crown, which they would immediately after compel him to ſign; and that the only means he could uſe to prevent ſo imminent a danger, was to ſign thoſe orders without loſs of time, which they had brought with them, for arreſting the queen and her accomplices. It is ſaid that the king was not eaſily prevailed upon to ſign theſe orders; but at length complied, though with reluctance and heſitation. Count Rantzau, and three officers, were diſpatched at that untimely hour to the queen's apartments, and immediately arreſted her. She was put into one of the king's coaches, in which ſhe was conveyed to the caſtle of Cronenburgh, together with the infant princeſs, attended by lady Moſtyn, and eſcorted by a party of dragoons. In the mean time, Struenſee and Brandt were alſo ſeized in their beds, and impriſoned in the citadel. Struenſee's brother, ſome of his adherents, and moſt of the members of the late adminiſtration, were ſeized the ſame night, to the number of about eighteen, and thrown into confinement. The government after this ſeemed to be entirely lodged in the hands of the queen-dowager and her ſon, ſupported and aſſiſted by thoſe who had the principal ſhare in the revolution; while the king appeared to be little more than a pageant whoſe perſon and name it was neceſſary occaſionally to make uſe of. All the officers who had a hand in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almoſt total change took place in all the departments of adminiſtration. A new council was appointed, in which prince Frederic preſided,

preſided, and a commiſſion of eight members, to examine the papers o the priſoners, and to commence a proceſs againſt them. The ſon o queen Matilda, the prince royal, who was entered into the fifth year o his age, was put into the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governeſs, under the ſuperintendency of the queen-dowager. Struenſee and Brandt were put in irons, and very rigorouſly treated in priſon; they both underwent long and frequent examinations, and at length received ſentence of death. They were beheaded on the 28th of April, having their right hands previouſly cut off: but many of their friends and adherents were afterwards ſet at liberty. Struenſee at firſt had abſolutely denied having any criminal intercourſe with the queen; but this he afterwards confeſſed: and though he is ſaid by ſome to have been induced to do this only by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt in this reſpect were eſteemed notorious, and his confeſſions full and explicit. Beſide, no meaſures were adopted by the court of Great Britain to clear up the queen's character in this reſpect. But in May, his Britannic majeſty ſent a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips to convey that princeſs to Germany, and appointed the city of Zell, in his electoral dominions, for the place of her future reſidence. She died there of a malignant fever, on the 10th of May, 1775, aged 23 years and 10 months.

In 1780, his Daniſh majeſty acceded to the armed neutrality propoſed by the empreſs of Ruſſia. He appears at preſent to have ſuch a debility of underſtanding, as to diſqualify him for the proper management of public affairs; but on the 16th of April, 1784, another court revolution took place. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council formed under the auſpices of the prince-royal, ſome of the former old members reſtored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be paid for the future to any inſtrument, unleſs ſigned by the king, and counterſigned by the prince-royal.

The conduct of this prince is ſtamped with that conſiſtency of behaviour, which enables him to purſue, with unremitting zeal, the prudent and benevolent ſchemes which he has planned for the benefit of his grateful country. The reſtoration of the peaſantry to their long-loſt liberty, and the abolition of many grievances under which they laboured, have already been diſtinctly mentioned. To this may be added the exertions he makes for the general diffuſion of knowledge; the patronage he affords to ſocieties of learning, arts, and ſcience; the excellent meaſures he has adopted for the ſuppreſſion of beggars, with whom the country was over-run, and the encouragement of induſtry, by the moſt extenſive inquiries into the ſtate of the poor throughout the kingdom; the wiſe regulations he has introduced into the corn-trade, equally beneficial to the landed intereſt and to the poor; and the judicious laws, which under his influence have been made to encourage foreigners to ſettle in Iceland. If any thing is wanting to complete his happineſs, his late matrimonial choice crowns it. The princeſs of Heſſe Caſſel, whom he has choſen, is ſaid to poſſeſs the moſt amiable diſpoſitions and goodneſs of heart.

Count Schimmelman, miniſter of ſtate, finances, and commerce, has the merit of accompliſhing the abolition of the ſlave-trade among the ſubjects of Denmark. His plan was approved by the king on the 22d of February, 1792, and is to be gradual; and in 1803, all trade in negroes is to ceaſe on the part of Daniſh ſubjects. The diſintereſtedneſs of this miniſter, who poſſeſſes large eſtates in the Daniſh Weſt India iſlands, recommends his exertions to greater praiſe. The above ordinance does not ſeem to have cauſed any ſtir in Denmark among the Weſt India merchants; and it is not thought it will cauſe any in the iſlands.

A ſcheme

A ſcheme for defraying the national debt has been ſuggeſted and followed. One million has already been diſcharged.

Denmark, to its honour, has formally refuſed to join in the alliance of potentates againſt France.

Chriſtian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; in 1756 he was married to the princeſs Carolina-Matilda of England; and has iſſue, 1. Frederic, prince-royal of Denmark, born January 28, 1768, and married in 1790, to the princeſs Mary-Anne-Frederica, of Heſſe. 2. Louiſa-Auguſta, princeſs-royal, born July 7, 1771, and married May 27, 1786, to Frederic, prince of Sleſwick-Holſtein, by whom ſhe has iſſue.

Brothers and ſiſters to the king. 1. Sophia Magdalene, born July 3, 1746: married to the late king of Sweden, Guſtavus III.—2. Wilhelmina, born July 10, 1747; married Sept. 1, 1764, William, the preſent prince of Heſſe-Caſſel.—3. Louiſa, born Jan. 30, 1750; married Aug. 30, 1766, Charles, brother to the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel.—4. Frederic, born Oct. 28, 1753.

His Danish Majesty's GERMAN DOMINIONS.

HOLSTEIN, a duchy of Lower Saxony, about 100 miles long and 50 broad, and a fruitful country, was formerly divided between the empreſs of Ruſſia (termed Ducal Holſtein), the king of Denmark, and the imperial cities of Hamburg and Lubeck: but on the 16th of November, 1773, the Ducal Holſtein, with all the rights, prerogatives, and territorial ſovereignty, was formally transferred to the king of Denmark, by virtue of a treaty between both courts. The duke of Holſtein Gottorp is joint ſovereign of great part of it now, with the Daniſh monarch. Kiel is the capital of Ducal Holſtein, and is well built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices. The capital of the Daniſh Holſtein is Gluckſtadt, a well-built town and fortreſs, but in a marſhy ſituation, on the right of the Elbe, and has ſome foreign commerce.

Altena, a large, populous, and handſome town, of great traffic, is commodiouſly ſituated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg. It was built profeſſedly in that ſituation by the kings of Denmark, that it might ſhare in the commerce of the former. Being declared a free port, and the ſtaple of the Daniſh Eaſt India company, the merchants alſo enjoying liberty of conſcience, great numbers flocked to Altena from all parts of the North, and even from Hamburg itſelf.

The famous city of Hamburg lies, in a geographical ſenſe, in Holſtein; but is an imperial, free, and Hanſeatic city, lying on the verge of that part of Holſtein, called Stormar. It has the ſovereignty of a ſmall diſtrict round it, of about ten miles circuit: it is one of the moſt flouriſhing commercial towns in Europe; and though the kings of Denmark ſtill lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be conſidered as a well-regulated commonwealth. The number of its inhabitants is ſaid to amount to 180,000; and it is furniſhed with a vaſt variety of noble edifices, both public and private: it has two ſpacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals. Hamburg has the good fortune of having been peculiarly favoured in its commerce by Great Britain, with whom it ſtill carries on a great trade. The Hamburghers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, beſides an artillery company.

Lubec, an imperial city, with a good harbour, and once the capital of the Hanſe towns, and ſtill a rich and populous place, is alſo in this duchy,

duchy, and governed by its own magiſtrates. It has 20 pariſh churches, beſides a large cathedral. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion of the whole duchy.

In WESTPHALIA, the king of Denmark has the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorſt, about 2000 ſquare miles; they lie on the ſouth ſide of the Weſer; their capitals have the ſame name; the firſt has the remains of a fortification, and the laſt is an open place. Oldenburg gave a title to the firſt royal anceſtor of his preſent Daniſh majeſty. The country abounds with marſhes and heaths; but its horſes are the beſt in Germany.

LAPLAND.

THE northern ſituation of Lapland, and the diviſion of its property, require, before I proceed farther, that I ſhould treat of it under a diſtinct head, and in the ſame method that I obſerve in other countries.

SITUATION, EXTENT, DIVISION, AND NAME. } The whole country of Lapland extends, ſo far as it is known, from the North Cape in 71° 30′ N. lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the moſt valuable; and ſome parts in the eaſt, to the Muſcovites or Ruſſians. It would be little better than waſting the reader's time, to pretend to point out the ſuppoſed dimenſions of each. That belonging to the Swedes may be ſeen in the table of dimenſions given in the account of Sweden: but other accounts ſay that it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth: it comprehends all the country from the Baltic, to the mountains that ſeparate Norway from Sweden. The Muſcovite part lies towards the eaſt, between the lake Enarak and the White Sea. Thoſe parts, notwithſtanding the rudeneſs of the country, are divided into ſmaller diſtricts, generally taking their names from rivers: but, unleſs in the Swediſh part, which is ſubject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be ſaid to be under no regular government. The Swediſh Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly conſidered by authors in deſcribing this country. It has been generally thought that the Laplanders are the deſcendents of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lappes*, which ſignifies exiles. The reader, from what has been ſaid in the Introduction, may eaſily conceive, that in Lapland, for ſome months in the ſummer, the ſun never ſets; and during winter, it never riſes; but the inhabitants are ſo well aſſiſted by the twilight and the aurora borealis, that they never diſcontinue their work through darkneſs.

CLIMATE.] In winter it is no unuſual thing for their lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and in ſome thermometers, ſpirits of wine are concreted into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mortify with cold: drifts of ſnow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw ſometimes takes place, and then the froſt that ſucceeds, preſents the Laplander with a ſmooth level of ice, over which he travels with a rein-deer in a ſledge with inconceivable ſwiftneſs. The heats of ſummer are exceſſive for a ſhort time; and the cataracts which daſh from the mountains, often preſent to the eye the moſt picturеſque appearances.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS. } The reader muſt form in his mind a vaſt maſs of mountains, irregularly crowded together, to give him an idea of Lapland: they are, however,

in ſome interſtices, ſeparated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of iſlands, ſome of which form delightful habitations, and are believed by the natives to be the terreſtrial Paradiſe: even roſes and other flowers grow wild on their borders in the ſummer; though this is but a ſhort gleam of temperature, for the climate in general is exceſſively ſevere. Duſky foreſts, and noiſome, unhealthy moraſſes, and barren plains, cover great part of the flat country, ſo that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the ſtate of the inhabitants.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as thoſe of iron, copper, and lead, have been diſcovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage; beautiful cryſtals are found here, as are ſome amethyſts and topazes; alſo various ſorts of mineral ſtones, ſurpriſingly poliſhed by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have likewiſe been ſometimes found in theſe rivers, but never in the ſeas.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS.] We muſt refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as its contents are in common with all the three countries. The *zibelin*, a creature reſembling the marten, is a native of Lapland; and its ſkin, whether black or white, is ſo much eſteemed, that it is frequently given as preſents to royal and diſtinguiſhed perſonages. The Lapland hares grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. By far the moſt remarkable, however, of the Lapland animals, is the *rein-deer*, which nature ſeems to have provided to ſolace the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life. This animal, the moſt uſeful perhaps of any in the creation, reſembles the ſtag, only it ſomewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. All deſcribers of this animal have taken notice of the crackling noiſe that they make when they move their legs, which is attributed to their ſeparating and afterwards bringing together the diviſions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair, in the ſame manner that the claw of the *Ptarmigan* is with feathery briſtles, which is almoſt the only bird that can endure the rigour of the ſame climate. The hoof however is not only thus protected; the ſame neceſſity which obliges the Laplanders to uſe ſnow ſhoes, makes the extraordinary width of the rein's hoof to be equally convenient in paſſing over ſnow, as it prevents their ſinking too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body reſt only on a ſmall point. This quadruped hath therefore an inſtinct to uſe a hoof of ſuch a form in a ſtill more advantageous manner, by ſeparating it when the foot is to touch the ground ſo as to cover a larger ſurface of ſnow. The inſtant however the leg of the animal is raiſed, the hoof is immediately contracted, and the colliſion of the parts occaſions the ſnapping which is heard on every motion of the rein. And probably the crackling which they perpetually make, may ſerve to keep them together when the weather is remarkably dark. In ſummer, the reindeer provide themſelves with leaves and graſs, and in the winter they live upon moſs: they have a wonderful ſagacity at finding it out, and when found, they ſcrape away the ſnow that covers it with their feet. The ſcantineſs of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journies which they can perform without any other ſupport. They fix the rein-deer to a kind of ſledge, ſhaped like a ſmall boat, in which the traveller, well ſecured from cold, is laced down, with the reins in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and ſnow. The deer, whoſe harneſſing is very ſimple, ſets out, and continues the journey with prodigious ſpeed; and is ſo ſafe and tractable, that the driver

driver is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they look out for their own provender; and their milk often helps to support their master. Their inſtinct in chooſing their road, and directing their courſe, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the ſummer months, when they live in the woods. Their fleſh is a well-taſted food, whether freſh or dried; their ſkin forms excellent cloathing both for the bed and the body; their milk and cheeſe are nutritive and pleaſant; and their inteſtines and tendons ſupply their maſters with thread and cordage. When they run about wild in the fields, they may be ſhot at as other game. But it is ſaid, that if one is killed in a flock, the ſurvivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore ſingle ſtragglers are generally pitched upon. Were I to recount every circumſtance, related by the credulous, of this animal, the whole would appear fabulous. With all their excellent qualities, however, the rein-deer have their inconveniences.

It is difficult in ſummer to keep them from ſtraggling; they are ſometimes buried in the ſnow; and they frequently grow reſtive, to the great danger of the driver and his carriage. Their ſurpriſing ſpeed (for they are ſaid to run at the rate of 200 miles a day) ſeems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneaſy poſture in which he is placed, when he is confined in one of theſe carriages or pulkhas; or would believe, that, by whiſpering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their deſtination. But after all theſe abatements, the natives would have difficulty to ſubſiſt without the rein-deer, which ſerve them for ſo many purpoſes.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is of Finniſh origin, and comprehends ſo many dialects, that it is with difficulty they underſtand each other. They have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make uſe of in their Rounes, a ſort of ſticks that they called Piſtave, and which ſerve them for an almanack. Theſe hieroglyphics are alſo the marks they uſe inſtead of ſignatures, even in matters of law. Miſſionaries from the chriſtianiſed parts of Scandinavia introduced among them the Chriſtian religion; but they cannot be ſaid even yet to be Chriſtians, though they have among them ſome religious ſeminaries, inſtituted by the king of Denmark. Upon the whole, the majority of the Laplanders practiſe as groſs ſuperſtitions and idolatries as are to be found among the moſt uninſtructed pagans; and ſo abſurd, that they ſcarcely deſerve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their ſuperſtitions have induced the northern traders to believe that they are ſkilful in magic and divination. For this purpoſe their magicians, who are a peculiar ſet of men, make uſe of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch tree, one end of which is covered with a ſkin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jeſus Chriſt, the apoſtles, the ſun, moon, ſtars, birds, and rivers; on theſe they place one or two braſs rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures: and according to their progreſs the ſorcerer prognoſticates. Theſe frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ſhip-maſters are ſuch dupes to the arts of theſe impoſtors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the magician's directions, they gain what wind they want. This is alſo a very common traffic on the banks of the Red Sea, and is managed with great addreſs on the part of the ſorcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted

taliſman. The Laplanders ſtill retain the worſhip of many of the Teutonic gods, but have among them great remains of the Druidical inſtitutions. They believe the tranſmigration of the ſoul, and have feſtivals ſet apart for the worſhip of certain genii, called Jeuhles, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but being without form or ſubſtance, they aſſign to them neither images nor ſtatues.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into Lapland fiſhers, and Lapland mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink, or in the neighbourhood of ſome lake, from whence they draw their ſubſiſtence. The others ſeek their ſupport upon the mountains, and their environs, poſſeſſing herds of rein-deer more or leſs numerous, which they uſe according to the ſeaſon, but go generally on foot. They are excellent and very induſtrious herdſmen, and are rich in compariſon of the Lapland fiſhers. Some of them poſſeſs ſix hundred or a thouſand rein-deer, and have often money and plate beſides. They mark every rein-deer on the ears, and divide them into claſſes; ſo that they inſtantly perceive whether any one is ſtrayed, though they cannot count to ſo great a number as that to which their ſtock often amounts. Thoſe who poſſeſs but a ſmall ſtock, give to every individual a proper name. The Lapland fiſhers, who are alſo called Laplanders of the Woods, becauſe in ſummer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the foreſts, live by fiſhing and hunting, and chooſe their ſituation by its convenience for either. The greateſt part of them, however, have ſome rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chaſe: and the introduction of fire arms among them has almoſt entirely aboliſhed the uſe of the bow and arrow. Beſides looking after the rein-deer, the fiſhery, and the chaſe, the men employ themſelves in the conſtruction of their canoes, which are ſmall, light, and compact. They alſo make ſledges, to which they give the form of a canoe, harneſs for the rein-deer, cups, bowls, and various other utenſils, which are ſometimes neatly carved, and ſometimes ornamented with bones, braſs, or horn. The employment of the women conſiſts in making nets for the fiſhery, in drying fiſh and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheeſe, and tanning hides: but it is underſtood to be the buſineſs of the men to look after the kitchen, in which it is ſaid the women never interfere.

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is about twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above ſix in height. They cover them, according to the ſeaſon, and the means of the poſſeſſor, ſome with briars, bark of birch, and linen,—others with turf, coarſe cloth, or felt, or the old ſkins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains which open aſunder. A little place ſurrounded with ſtones is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is ſuſpended to hang the kettle upon. They are ſcarcely able to ſtand upright in their huts, but conſtantly ſit upon their heels round the fire. At night they lie down quite naked; and to ſeparate the apartments, they place upright ſticks at ſmall diſtances. They cover themſelves with their clothes, or lie upon them. In winter they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their houſehold furniture conſiſts of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, ſpoons, and ſometimes tin or even ſilver baſons: to theſe may be added the implements of fiſhing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry ſuch a number of things with them in their excurſions, they build in the foreſts, at certain diſtances, little huts, made like pigeon-houſes, and placed upon a poſt, which is the trunk of a tree, cut

off at the height of about a fathom or ſix feet from the root. In theſe elevated huts they keep their goods and proviſions; and though they are never ſhut, yet they are never plundered. The rein-deer ſupply the Laplanders with the greateſt part of their proviſions: the chaſe and the fiſhery ſupply the reſt. Their principal diſhes are the fleſh of the rein-deer, and puddings which they make of their blood, by putting it, either alone or mixed with wild berries, into the ſtomach of the animal from whence it was taken, in which they cook it for food. But the fleſh of the bear is conſidered by them as their moſt delicate meat. They eat every kind of fiſh, even the ſea-dog; as well as all kinds of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey and carnivorous animals. Their winter proviſions conſiſt chiefly of fleſh and fiſh dried in the open air, both of which they eat raw, without any ſort of dreſſing. Their common drink is water, ſometimes mixed with milk; they make alſo broths and fiſh ſoups. Brandy is very ſcarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family ſpreads a carpet on the ground; and the men and women ſquat round this mat, which is covered with diſhes. Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a ſpoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion ſeparately given him, that no perſon may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a ſhort prayer: and as ſoon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

In their dreſs, the Laplanders uſe no kind of linen. The men wear cloſe breeches, reaching down to their ſhoes, which are made of untanned ſkin, pointed and turned up before; and in winter they put a little hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their ſhape, and open at the breaſt. Over this, they wear a cloſe coat with narrow ſleeves, whoſe ſkirts reach down to the knees, and which is faſtened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or braſs. To this girdle they tie their knives, their inſtruments for getting fire, their pipes, and the reſt of their ſmoaking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, of leather, or of cloth; the cloſe coat of cloth or leather always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four ſeams adorned with liſts of a different colour from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, ſhoes, doublets, and cloſe coats, in the ſame manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewiſe the implements for ſmoaking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with braſs wire. Their cloſe coat hath a collar, which comes up ſomewhat higher than that of the men. Beſides theſe, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, to which they ſometimes hang chains of ſilver, which paſs two or three times round the neck. They are often dreſſed in caps folded after the manner of turbans. They wear alſo caps fitted to the ſhape of the head: and as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with the embroidery of braſs wire, or at leaſt with liſt of different colours.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenneſs of its ſoil. The whole number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are in general conſiderably ſhorter than more ſouthern Europeans. Maupertuis meaſured a woman who was ſuckling her child, whoſe height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half; they make however a much more agreeable appearance than the men, who are often ill-ſhaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies. Their women are complaiſant, chaſte, often well made, and extremely nervous; which is alſo obſervable among the men, although more rarely. It frequently happens that a Lapland woman will faint away,

or

or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a ſpark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noiſe, or the ſudden ſight of an unexpected object, though in its own nature not in the leaſt alarming; in ſhort, at the moſt trifling things imaginable. During theſe paroxyſms of terror, they deal about blows with the firſt thing that preſents itſelf; and on coming to themſelves, are utterly ignorant of all that has paſſed.

When a Laplander intends to marry a female, he, or his friends, court her father with brandy; when, with ſome difficulty, he gains admittance to his fair one, he offers her a beaver's tongue, or ſome other eatable, which ſhe rejects before company, but accepts of in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchaſed from her father, by her lover, with a bottle of brandy, and this prolongs the courtſhip ſometimes for three years. The prieſt of the pariſh at laſt celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to ſerve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

COMMERCE.] Little can be ſaid of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports conſiſt of fiſh, rein-deer, furs, baſkets, and toys; with ſome dried pikes, and cheeſes made of rein-deer milk. They receive for theſe rix-dollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, ſpirituous liquors, tobacco, and other neceſſaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconſiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a kind of caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. The reader may make ſome eſtimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty ſquirrel ſkins, or one fox ſkin, and a pair of Lapland ſhoes, produce one rix-dollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greateſt part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the ſecurity of their property, few diſputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable averſion to war; and ſo far as we know, are never employed in any army.

SWEDEN.

EXTENT and SITUATION.

	Miles.			Degrees.
Length	800	}	between	{ 56 and 69 North latitude.
Breadth	500	}		{ 10 and 30 East longitude.

Containing 220,000 ſquare miles, with 14 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] THIS country is bounded by the Baltic ſea, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scaggeric, on the ſouth; by the impaſſable mountains of Norway, on the weſt; by Daniſh or Norwegian Lapland on the North; and by Muſcovy on the eaſt. It is divided into ſeven provinces: 1. Sweden Proper. 2. Gothland. 3. Livonia. 4. Ingria. (Theſe two laſt provinces belong now, however, to the Ruſſians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by poſterior treaties.) 5. Finland. 6. Swediſh Lapland: and, 7. The Swediſh iſlands. Great abatement muſt be made for the lakes and unimproved parts of Sweden; which are ſo extenſive, that the habitable part is confined to narrow bounds. The following are the dimenſions given us of this kingdom:

Sweden.		Square Miles.	Sum total.	Length.	Breadth	Capital Cities.
		76,835	228,715			
Sweden Proper — —		47,900		342	194	Stockholm, N. Lat. 59—30. E. Lon. 19—15.
Gothland — —		25,975		253	160	Calmar.
Schonen — —		2,960		77	56	Lunden.
			76,835			
Lapland and W. Bothnia		76,000		420	340	Torne, Uma.
Swediſh Finland, and Eaſt Bothnia		73,000		395	225	Abo, Cajenburgh.
Gothland I. —		1,000		80	23	Wiſby.
Oeland I. — —		560		84	9	Barkholm.
			150,560			
Upper Saxony	Pomerania, P.	960		47	24	Stralſund.
	Rugen I.	360		24	21	Bergen.
			1,320			

Of Sweden Proper, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

Uplandia,	Helſingia,
Sudermania,	Dalecarlia,
Weſtmania,	Medelpedia,
Nericia,	Angermania,
Geſtricia,	Jemptia.

Of Gothland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

Eaſt Gothland,	Dalia,
Weſt Gothland,	Schonen,
Smaland,	Bleking,
Wermeland,	Halland.

Of Swediſh Lapland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

Thorne Lapmark,	Pithia Lapmark,
Kimi Lapmark,	Uma Lapmark.
Lula Lapmark,	

The principal places in Weſt Bothnia are Umea, Pitea, and Tornea.

Of Finland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

Eaſt Bothnia,	Nyland,
Cajania,	Travaſtia,
Savoloxia,	Finland Proper.

The Swediſh iſles are Gothland, Oeland, Aland, and Rugen.

The face of Sweden is pretty ſimilar to thoſe of its neighbouring countries; only it has the advantage of navigable rivers.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS. } The ſame may be ſaid with regard to this article. Summer burſts from winter; and vegetation is more ſpeedy than in ſouthern climates; for the ſun is here ſo hot, as ſometimes to ſet foreſts on fire. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of winter, which is ſo intenſe, that the noſes and extremities of the inhabitants are ſometimes mortified; and in ſuch caſes, the beſt remedy that has been found out, is rubbing the affected part with ſnow. The Swedes, ſince the days of Charles XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenneſs of their country, by erecting

colleges

colleges of agriculture, and in ſome places with great ſucceſs. The ſoil is much the ſame with that of Denmark, and ſome parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in ſome vallies ſurpriſingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not induſtry ſufficient to remedy the one, nor improve the other. The peaſants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and ſome late accounts ſay, that they raiſe almoſt as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and beans; and in caſe of deficiency, the people are ſupplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. In ſummer, the fields are verdant, and covered with flowers, and produce ſtrawberries, raſberries, currants, and other ſmall fruits. The common people know, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, pine-apples, and the like high-flavoured fruits; but melons are brought to great perfection in dry ſeaſons.

MINERALS AND METALS.] Sweden produces cryſtals, amethyſts, topazes, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other foſſils. The chief wealth of Sweden, however, ariſes from her mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron. The laſt-mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammering mills, and ſmelting-houſes. A kind of a gold mine has likewiſe been diſcovered in Sweden, but ſo inconſiderable, that from the year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2,389 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. ſterling. The firſt gallery of one ſilver mine is 100 fathoms below the ſurface of the earth; the roof is ſupported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners deſcend about 40 fathoms to the loweſt vein. This mine is ſaid to produce 20,000 crowns a year. The product of the copper-mines is uncertain; but the whole is loaded with vaſt taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other reſources for the exigencies of ſtate. Theſe ſubterraneous manſions are aſtoniſhingly ſpacious, and at the ſame time commodious for their inhabitants, ſo that they ſeem to form a hidden world. The water-falls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for turning mills for forges; and for ſome years, the exports of Sweden for iron brought in 300,000l. ſterling. Dr. Buſching thinks that they conſtituted two-thirds of the national revenue. It muſt, however, be obſerved, that the extortions of the Swediſh government, and the importation of American bar-iron into Europe, and ſome other cauſes, have greatly diminiſhed this manufacture of Sweden; ſo that the Swedes will be obliged to apply themſelves to other branches of trade and improvements, eſpecially in agriculture.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] A few leagues from Gottenburgh there is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract of water ruſhes with ſuch impetuoſity, from the height, into ſo deep a bed of water, that large maſts, and other bodies of timber, that are precipitated down it, diſappear, ſome for half an hour, and others for an hour, before they are recovered: the bottom of this bed has never been found, though ſounded by lines of ſeveral hundred fathoms. A remarkable ſlimy lake, which finges things put into it, has been found in the ſouthern parts of Gothland: and ſeveral parts of Sweden contain a ſtone, which being of a yellow colour, intermixed with ſeveral ſtreaks of white, as if compoſed of gold and ſilver, affords ſulphur, vitriol, alum, and minium. The Swedes pretend to have a manuſcript of a tranſlation of the Goſpels into Gothic, done by a biſhop 1300 years ago.

SEAS.] Their ſeas are the Baltic, and the gulphs of Bothnia and Finland, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the weſt of Sweden are the Categate ſea, and the Sound, a ſtrait about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark.

Theſe ſeas have no tides, and are frozen up uſually four months in the year; nor are they ſo ſalt as the ocean, never mixing with it, becauſe a current ſets always out of the Baltic ſea into the ocean.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Theſe differ little from thoſe already deſcribed in Norway and Denmark, to which I muſt refer; only the Swediſh horſes are known to be more ſerviceable in war than the German. The Swediſh hawks, when carried to France, have been known to reviſit their native country, as appears from one that was killed in Finland, with an inſcription on a ſmall good plate, ſignifying that he belonged to the French king. The fiſhes found in the rivers and lakes of Sweden, are the ſame with thoſe in other northern countries, and taken in ſuch quantities, that their pikes (particularly) are ſalted and pickled for exportation. The train-oil of the ſeals taken in the gulf of Finland is a conſiderable article of exportation.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] There is a great diverſity of characters among the people of Sweden; and what is peculiarly remarkable among them, they are known to have had different characters in different ages. At preſent, their peaſants ſeem to be a heavy plodding race of men, ſtrong and hardy, but without any other ambition than that of ſubſiſting themſelves and their families as well as they can: the mercantile claſſes are much of the ſame caſt; but great application and perſeverance is diſcovered among them all. One could, however, form no idea that the modern Swedes are deſcendents of thoſe, who, under Guſtavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names through diſtant countries, and ſhook the foundations of the greateſt empires. The intrigues of their ſenators dragged them to take part in the late war againſt Pruſſia; yet their behaviour was ſpiritleſs, and their courage contemptible. The principal nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite, and hoſpitable; they have high and warm notions of honour, and are jealous of their national intereſts. The dreſs, exerciſes, and diverſions, of the common people, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Denmark: the better ſort are infatuated with French modes and faſhions. The women go to the plough, threſh out the corn, row upon the water, ſerve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries in huſbandry.

RELIGION.] Chriſtianity was introduced here in the 9th century. Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated amongſt them by Guſtavus Vaſa, about the year 1523. The Swedes are ſurpriſingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters: and have ſuch averſion to popery, that caſtration is the fate of every Roman catholic prieſt diſcovered in their country. The archbiſhop of Upſal has a revenue of about 400l. a year, and has under him 13 ſuffragans, beſides ſuperintendents, with moderate ſtipends. No clergyman has the leaſt direction in the affairs of ſtate; but their morals and the ſanctity of their lives endear them ſo much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their churches are neat, and often ornamented. A body of eccleſiaſtical laws and canons direct their religious œconomy. A converſion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot paſs without the king's permiſſion, is puniſhed by impriſonment and exile.

LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] The Swediſh language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and reſembles that of Denmark. The Swediſh nobility and gentry are, in general, more converſant in polite literature than thoſe of many other more flouriſhing ſtates. They have of late exhibited ſome noble ſpecimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature; witneſs their ſending, at the expence of private perſons, that excellent and candid natural philoſopher Haſſelquiſt, into the

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eaſtern countries for diſcoveries, where he died. This noble ſpirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family; and her Swediſh majeſty purchaſed, at no inconſiderable expenſe for that country, all Haſſelquiſt's collection of curioſities. That able civilian, ſtateſman, and hiſtorian, Puffendorff, was a native of Sweden; and ſo was the late celebrated Linnæus, who carried natural philoſophy, in ſome branches at leaſt, particularly botany, to the higheſt pitch. The paſſion of the famous queen Chriſtina for literature, is well known to the public; and ſhe may be accounted a genius in many branches of knowledge. Even in the midſt of the late diſtractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, ſculpture, and architecture, were encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is now carried to a conſiderable height in that kingdom; and the character given by ſome writers, that the Swedes are a dull heavy people, fitted only for bodily labour, is in a great meaſure owing to their having no opportunity of exerting their talents.

UNIVERSITIES.] The principal is that of Upſal, inſtituted near 400 years ago, and patroniſed by ſucceſſive monarchs, particularly by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, and his daughter queen Chriſtina. There are near 1500 ſtudents in this univerſity; but for the moſt part they are extremely indigent, and lodge, five or ſix together, in very poor hovels. The profeſſors in different branches of literature are about twenty-two; of whom the principal are thoſe of divinity, eloquence, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, natural philoſophy, aſtronomy, and agriculture. Their ſalaries are from 70l. to 100l. per annum. This univerſity, juſtly called by Stillingfleet, "that great and hitherto unrivalled ſchool of natural hiſtory," is certainly the firſt ſeminary of the North for academical education, and has produced, from the time of its inſtitution, perſons eminent in every branch of ſcience. The learned publications, which have lately been given to the world by its members, ſufficiently prove the flouriſhing ſtate of literature in theſe parts; and the theſes, compoſed by the ſtudents on their admiſſion to their degrees, would form a very intereſting collection. Many of theſe tracts upon various ſubjects of polite literature, antiquities, languages, &c. evidence the erudition and taſte of the reſpective authors: among the works of this ſort which have widely diffuſed the fame of this learned ſociety throughout Europe, are the *Amœnitates Academicæ*, or a Collection of Theſes upon Natural Hiſtory, held under the celebrated Linnæus, and chiefly ſelected by that maſter.

There is another univerſity at Abo in Finland, but not ſo well endowed, nor ſo flouriſhing; and there was a third at Lunden, in Schonen, which is now fallen into decay. Every dioceſe is provided with a free-ſchool, in which boys are qualified for the univerſity *.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS. The Swediſh commonalty ſubſiſt by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fiſhing. Their materials for traffic are the bulky and uſeful commodities of maſts, beams, deal-boards, and other ſorts of timber for ſhipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, pot-aſh, wooden utenſils, hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and fiſh. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden ſo late as the 16th century; for till that time they ſold their own crude ore to the Hanſe towns, and bought it back again manufactured into utenſils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the aſſiſtance of the Dutch and Flemings, they ſet up ſome manufactories of glaſs, ſtarch, tin, woollen, ſilk, ſoap,

* An academy of arts and ſciences was ſome years ſince eſtabliſhed at Stockholm, and is now in a flouriſhing condition. They have publiſhed ſeveral volumes of memoirs, which have been well received by the public.

leather-dreſſing, and ſaw-mills. Bookſelling was at that time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have ſince had ſugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of ſail-cloth, cotton, fuſtian, and other ſtuffs; of linen, alum, and brimſtone; paper-mills, and gunpowder-mills. Vaſt quantities of copper, braſs, ſteel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden. They have alſo founderies for cannon, forges for fire-arms, and anchors; armories, wire and ſlatting mills; mills alſo for fulling, and for boring and ſtamping; and of late they have built many ſhips for ſale.

Certain towns in Sweden, 24 in number, are called ſtaple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ſhips. Thoſe towns which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the ſea, are called land-towns. A third kind are termed mine-towns, as belonging to the mine diſtricts. The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly increaſed their exports, and diminiſhed their imports, moſt part of which arrive, or are ſent off, in Swediſh ſhips; the Swedes having now a kind of navigation act, like that of the Engliſh. Theſe promiſing appearances were, however, blaſted, by the madneſs and jealouſies of the Swediſh government.

Stockholm is a ſtaple-town, and the capital of the kingdom: it ſtands about 760 miles North-eaſt of London, upon ſeven ſmall rocky iſlands, beſides two peninſulas, and built upon piles. It ſtrikes a ſtranger with its ſingular and romantic ſcenery. A variety of contraſted and enchanting views are formed by numberleſs rocks of granite, riſing boldly from the ſurface of the water, partly bare and craggy, partly dotted with houſes, or feathered with wood. The harbour, which is ſpacious and convenient, though difficult of acceſs, is an inlet of the Baltic: the water is clear as cryſtal, and of ſuch depth, that ſhips of the largeſt burden can approach the quay, which is of conſiderable breadth, and lined with ſpacious buildings and warehouſes. At the extremity of the harbour, ſeveral ſtreets riſe one above another in the form of an amphitheatre; and the palace, a magnificent building, crowns the ſummit. Towards the ſea, about two or three miles from the town, the harbour is contracted into a narrow ſtrait, and winding among high rocks, diſappears from the ſight; and the proſpect is terminated by diſtant hills, overſpread with foreſt. It is far beyond the power of words, or of the pencil, to delineate theſe ſingular views. The central iſland, from which the city derives its name, and the Ritterholm, are the handſomeſt parts of the town.

Excepting in the ſuburbs, where the houſes are of wood, painted red, the generality of the buildings are of ſtone, or brick ſtuccoed white. The royal palace, which ſtands in the centre of Stockholm, and upon the higheſt ſpot of ground, was begun by Charles XI. It is a large quadrangular ſtone edifice, and the ſtyle of architecture is both elegant and magnificent *.

The number of houſe-keepers who pay taxes are 60,000. This city is furniſhed with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce, that are common to other great European cities, particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 466,666l. 13s. 4d. ſterling.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden has undergone many changes. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during the courſe of many centuries the crown was elective; but after various revolutions, which will be hereafter mentioned, Charles XII. who was killed in 1718, became deſpotic. He was ſucceeded by his ſiſter Ulrica, who conſented to the abolition of deſpotiſm, and reſtored the ſtates

* Coxe, vol. ii. p. 327, 328.

to

to their former liberties; and they, in return, aſſociated her huſband, the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel, with her in the government. A new model of the conſtitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king of Sweden could ſcarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exerciſe of government, and even in the education of his own children. The diet of the ſtates appointed the great officers of the kingdom; and all the employments of any value, eccleſiaſtical, civil, or military, were conferred by the king, only with the approbation of the ſenate. The eſtates were formed of deputies from the four orders, nobility, clergy, burghers, and peaſants. The repreſentatives of the nobility, which included the gentry, amounted to above 1000, thoſe of the clergy to 200, the burghers to about 150, and the peaſants to 250. Each order ſat in its own houſe, and had its own ſpeaker; and each choſe a ſecret committee for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſtates were to be convoked once in three years, in the month of January, and their collective body had greater powers than the parliament of Great Britain; becauſe, as it has been obſerved, the king's prerogative was far more bounded.

When the ſtates were not ſitting, the affairs of the public were managed by the king and the ſenate, which were no other than a committee of the ſtates, but choſen in a particular manner; the nobility, or upper houſe, appointed 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers 12; theſe choſe three perſons, who were to be preſented to the king, that he might nominate one out of the three for each vacancy. The peaſants had no vote in electing a ſenator. Almoſt all the executive power was lodged in the ſenate, which conſiſted of 14 members, beſides the chief governors of the provinces, the preſident of the chancery, and the grand-marſhal. Thoſe ſenators, during the receſs of the ſtates, formed the king's privy-council; but he had no more than a caſting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lay to them from different courts of judicature; but each ſenator was accountable to the ſtates for his conduct in the ſenate. Thus, upon the whole, the government of Sweden might be called republican, for the king's power was not ſo great as that of a ſtadtholder. The ſenate had even a power of impoſing upon the king a ſub-committee of their number, who were to attend upon his perſon, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family. It would be endleſs to recount the numerous ſubordinate courts, boards, commiſſions, and tribunals, which the jealouſy of the Swedes had introduced into the civil, military, commercial, and other departments; it is ſufficient to ſay, that though nothing could be more plauſible, yet nothing was leſs practicable, than the whole plan of their diſtributive powers. Their officers and miniſters, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, were multiplied to an inconvenient degree; and the operations of government were greatly retarded, if not rendered ineffectual, by the tedious forms through which they muſt paſs.

But in Auguſt, 1772, the whole ſyſtem of the Swediſh government was totally changed by the late king, by force, and in the moſt unexpected manner. The circumſtances which attended this extraordinary revolution will be found at the cloſe of our review of the hiſtory of Sweden. By that event the Swedes, inſtead of having the particular defects of their conſtitution rectified, found their king inveſted with a degree of authority little inferior to that of the moſt deſpotic princes of Europe. By the new form of government, the king is to aſſemble and ſeparate the ſtates whenever he pleaſes; he is to have the ſole diſpoſal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments, civil and military; and though by this new

ſyſtem the king does not openly claim a power of impoſing taxes on all occaſions, yet ſuch as already ſubſiſt are to be perpetual; and in caſe of invaſion, or preſſing neceſſity, the king may impoſe ſome taxes till the ſtates can be aſſembled. But of this neceſſity he is to be the judge, and the meeting of the ſtates depends wholly upon his will and pleaſure. And when they are aſſembled, they are to deliberate upon nothing but what the king thinks proper to lay before them. It is eaſy to diſcern, that a government thus conſtituted can be little removed from one of the moſt deſpotic kind. However, the Swediſh nation is ſtill amuſed with ſome ſlight appearances of a legal and limited government. For in the new ſyſtem, which conſiſts of fifty-ſeven articles, a ſenate is appointed, conſiſting of ſeventeen members, comprehending the great officers of the crown and the governor of Pomerania: and they are required to give their advice in all the affairs of the ſtate, whenever the king ſhall demand it. In that caſe, if the queſtions agitated are of great importance, and the advice of the ſenators ſhould be contrary to the opinion of the king, and they unanimous therein, the king, it is ſaid, ſhall follow their advice. But this, it may be obſerved, is a circumſtance that can hardly ever happen that all the members of a ſenate, conſiſting chiefly of officers of the crown, ſhould give their opinions againſt the king; and in every other caſe the king is to hear their opinions, and then to act as he thinks proper. There are ſome other apparent reſtraints of the legal power in the new ſyſtem of government, but they are in reality very inconſiderable. It is ſaid, indeed, that the king cannot eſtabliſh any new law, nor aboliſh any old one, without the knowledge and conſent of the ſtates: but the king of Sweden, according to the preſent conſtitution, is inveſted with ſo much authority, power, and influence, that it is hardly to be expected that any perſon will venture to make an oppoſition to whatever he ſhall propoſe.

PUNISHMENTS.] The common method of execution in Sweden is beheading and hanging; for murder, the hand of the criminal is firſt chopped off, and he is then beheaded, and quartered; women, after beheading, inſtead of being quartered, are burned. No capital puniſhment is inflicted without the ſentence being confirmed by the king. Every priſoner is at liberty to petition the king, within a month after the trial. The petition either complains of unjuſt condemnation, and in ſuch a caſe demands a reviſal of the ſentence; or elſe prays for pardon, or a mitigation of puniſhment. Malefactors are never put to death, except for very atrocious crimes, ſuch as murder, houſebreaking, robbery upon the highway, or repeated thefts. Other crimes, many of which in ſome countries are conſidered as capital, are chiefly puniſhed by whipping, condemnation to live upon bread and water, impriſonment, and hard labour, either for life, or for a ſtated time, according to the nature of the crime. Criminals were tortured to extort confeſſion, till the reign of the late king; but, in 1773, his Swediſh majeſty aboliſhed this cruel and abſurd practice.

POLITICAL INTERESTS OF SWEDEN.] In the reign of Guſtavus Vaſa, a treaty of alliance firſt took place between Sweden and France; and afterwards Sweden alſo entered into a ſubſidiary treaty with France, in the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus. In conſequence of theſe treaties, France by degrees acquired an aſcendency in Sweden, which was very pernicious to the intereſts of that kingdom. This crown has generally received a ſubſidy from France for above 100 years paſt, and has much ſuffered by it. During the reigns of Charles the XIth and Charles the XIIth, Sweden was ſacrificed to the intereſt of France; and during the laſt war with the king of Pruſſia, for the ſake of a ſmall ſubſidy from France, the crown of Swe-

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den was forced to contract a debt of 3,500,000l. which has since been conſiderably augmented, ſo that this debt now amounts to near five millions. Some of their wiſeſt men have perceived the miſchievous tendency of their connection with France, and have endeavoured to put an end to it. But the influence of the French court in Sweden, in conſequence of their ſubſidies and intrigues, has occaſioned conſiderable factions in that kingdom. In 1738, a moſt powerful party appeared in the diet, in favour of French meaſures. The perſons who compoſed it, went under the denomination of *Hats*. The object held out to the nation was the recovery of ſome of the dominions yielded to Ruſſia; and conſequently the ſyſtem they were to proceed upon, was to break with that power and connect themſelves with France. The party directly oppoſed to them was headed by count Horn, and thoſe who had contributed to eſtabliſh the new form of government, which was ſettled after the death of Charles XII. Their object was peace, and the promotion of the domeſtic welfare of the nation. The ſyſtem therefore, which they adopted, was to maintain a cloſe correſpondence with Ruſſia, and to avoid all farther connection with France. Theſe were ſtyled the *Caps*. There was beſides a third party, called the *Hatting Caps*, compoſed of perſons who were as yet undetermined to which of the other two they would join themſelves. Theſe parties long continued, but the French party generally prevailed, greatly to the detriment of the real intereſts of the kingdom. Some efforts were employed by the Engliſh court to leſſen or deſtroy the French influence in Sweden, and for ſome time they were ſucceſsful: but the Hat party again acquired the aſcendency. Theſe parties, however, are now aboliſhed, in conſequence of the late king of Sweden having made ſuch a total change in the conſtitution of the government.

REVENUE AND COIN.] The revenue of Sweden, by the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. and with the Ruſſians ſince, has been greatly reduced. Livonia, Bremen, Verden, and other places that kingdom was ſtripped of, contained about 78,000 ſquare miles. Her gold and ſilver ſpecie, in the late reign, aroſe chiefly from the king's German dominions. Formerly, the crown lands, poll money, tithes, mines, and other articles, are ſaid to have produced one million ſterling. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, are extremely inconvenient; ſome of thoſe pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheelbarrow is often required to carry home a moderate ſum. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of ſilver, valued each at 5s. 2d. but theſe are very ſcarce, and the inhabitants of Sweden have now very little ſpecie in circulation: large pieces of copper ſtamped, and ſmall bank notes, being almoſt their only circulating money.

STRENGTH AND FORCES.] I have already hinted, that no country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes: and yet they cannot be ſaid to maintain a ſtanding army, as their forces conſiſt of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raiſed upon the nobility and gentry, according to their eſtates; and the infantry by the peaſants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of ſoldiers, according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of 60 or 70l. per annum, is charged with a foot ſoldier, furniſhing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary clothes, and about 20s. a year in money; or elſe a little wooden houſe is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and paſturage for a cow, and ploughs and ſows land enough to ſupply him with bread. When embodied, they are ſubject to military law, but otherwiſe to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be ſaid, that every Swediſh ſoldier has a property

in the country he defends. This national army is thought to amount to above 40,000 men, but before the loſs of Livonia, to 60,000; and Sweden formerly could have fitted out 40 ſhips of the line; but of late years, their ſhips, together with their docks, have been ſuffered greatly to run to decay.

ROYAL STYLE.] The king's ſtyle is king of the Goths and Vandals, great prince of Finland, duke of Schonen, Pomerania, &c.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] Theſe are the order of the *North* or *Polar Star*, conſiſting of 24 members; the order of *Vaſa*; and the order of the *Sword*; the laſt created in 1772.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.] The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of ſubduing the Roman empire, and all the ſouthern nations of Europe. I ſhall not here follow the wild romances of the Swediſh hiſtorians through the early ages, from Magog, the great-grand-ſon of Noah. It is ſufficient to ſay, that Sweden has as good a claim to be an ancient monarchy, as any we know of. Nor ſhall I diſpute her being the paramount ſtate of Scandinavia (Sweden, Denmark, and Norway), and that ſhe borrowed her name from one of her princes. The introduction of Chriſtianity by Anſgarius biſhop of Bremen, in 829, ſeems to preſent the firſt certain period of the Swediſh hiſtory.

The hiſtory of Sweden, and indeed of all the northern nations, even during the firſt ages of Chriſtianity, is confuſed and unintereſting, and often doubtful; but ſufficiently replete with murders, maſſacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of conſiſtency till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it aſſumes an appearance more regular, and affords wherewith to recompenſe the attention of thoſe who chuſe to make it an object of their ſtudies. At this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly aſcertained or uniformly adminiſtered. The crown was elective, though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether diſregarded. The great lords poſſeſſed the moſt conſiderable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which conſiſted chiefly in land; commerce being unknown or neglected, and even agriculture itſelf in a very rude and imperfect ſtate. The clergy, particularly thoſe of a dignified rank, from the great reſpect paid to their character among the inhabitants of the North, had acquired an immenſe influence in all public affairs, and obtained poſſeſſion of what lands had been left unoccupied by the nobility. Theſe two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the ſtate, formed a council called the Senate, which was maſter of all public deliberations. This ſyſtem of government was extremely unfavourable to the national proſperity. The Swedes periſhed in the diſſenſions between their prelates and lay-barons, or between thoſe and their ſovereign; they were drained of the little riches they poſſeſſed, to ſupport the indolent pomp of a few magnificent biſhops; and, what was ſtill more fatal, the unlucky ſituation of their internal affairs expoſed them to the inroads and oppreſſion of a foreign enemy. Theſe were the Danes, who by their neighbourhood and power were always able to avail themſelves of the diſſenſions of Sweden, and to ſubject under a foreign yoke a country weakened and exhauſted by its domeſtic broils. In this deplorable ſituation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; ſometimes under the nominal ſubjection of its own princes, ſometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either caſe equally oppreſſed and inſulted.

Magnus Ladelus, crowned in 1276, ſeems to have been the firſt king of Sweden who purſued a regular ſyſtem to increaſe his authority; and to ſucceed in this, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his prin-

principal object. He was one of the ableſt princes who had ever ſat on the Swediſh throne; by his art and addreſs he prevailed upon the convention of eſtates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the ſupport of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increaſe of the regal power: and whilſt, by the ſteady and vigorous exertion of this power, Magnus humbled the haughty ſpirit of the nobles, and created in the reſt of the nation a reſpect for the royal dignity, with which they appear before to have been but little acquainted; he, at the ſame time, by employing his authority in many reſpects for the public good, reconciled his ſubjects to acts of power, which in former monarchs they would have oppoſed with the utmoſt violence. The ſucceſſors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and ſeveral commotions and revolutions followed, which threw the nation into great diſorder and confuſion, and the government was for a long time in the moſt unſettled ſtate.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both theſe kingdoms. That princeſs, to the ordinary ambition of her ſex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greateſt and moſt complicated deſigns. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, becauſe, like Semiramis, ſhe found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immenſe extent of territory: and became queen of Denmark, Norway and Sweden, being elected to this laſt in 1364. She projected the union of Calmar, ſo famous in the North, by which theſe kingdoms were for the future to remain under one ſovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who ſhould divide his reſidence between them all. Several revolutions enſued after the death of Margaret; and at length Chriſtian II. the laſt king of Denmark, who, by virtue of the treaty of Calmar, was alſo king of Sweden, engaged in a ſcheme to render himſelf entirely abſolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to effect this deſign no leſs barbarous, proved the deſtruction of himſelf, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to eſtabliſh his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for maſſacreing the principal nobility. This horrid deſign was actually carried into execution, Nov. 8, 1520. Of all thoſe who could oppoſe the deſpotic purpoſes of Chriſtian, no one remained in Sweden, but Guſtavus Vaſa, a young prince, deſcended of the ancient kings of that country, and who had already ſignaliſed his arms againſt the king of Denmark. An immenſe price was laid on his head. The Daniſh ſoldiers were ſent in purſuit of him; but by his dexterity and addreſs he eluded all their attempts, and eſcaped under the diſguiſe of a peaſant to the mountains of Dalecarlia. This is not the place to relate his dangers and fatigues, how, to prevent his diſcovery, he wrought in the braſs-mines, how he was betrayed by thoſe in whom he repoſed his confidence, and in fine, ſurmounting a thouſand obſtacles, engaged the ſavage but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia to undertake his cauſe, to oppoſe and to conquer his tyrannical oppreſſor. Sweden by his means again acquired independence. The ancient nobility were moſtly deſtroyed. Guſtavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his perſon. He was created therefore firſt adminiſtrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by the univerſal conſent, and with the ſhouts of the whole nation. His circumſtances were much more favourable than thoſe of any former prince who had poſſeſſed this dignity. The maſſacre of the nobles had rid him of thoſe proud and haughty enemies, who had ſo long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no leſs powerful than

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dangerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to prevail in the North, the force with which they were ſupported, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious ſyſtem of that country; and the exerciſe of the Roman catholic religion was prohibited in the year 1544, under the ſevereſt penalties, which have never yet been relaxed. Inſtead of a Gothic ariſtocracy, the moſt turbulent of all governments, and when empoiſoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the moſt wretched, Sweden in this manner became a regular monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were ſoon viſible; arts and manufactures were eſtabliſhed and improved; navigation and commerce began to flouriſh; letters and civility were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the reſt of Europe, began to be known by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties and deliberations.

Guſtavus died in 1559, while his eldeſt ſon Eric was preparing to embark for England to marry Queen Elizabeth.

Under Eric, who ſucceeded his father Guſtavus Vaſa, the titles of count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's miſerable and cauſeleſs jealouſy of his brothers forced him to take up arms; and the ſenate ſiding with them, he was depoſed in 1566. His brother John ſucceeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-eſtabliſh the catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made ſtrong efforts for that purpoſe, and even reconciled himſelf to the pope, he was oppoſed by his brother Charles, and the ſcheme proved ineffectual. John's ſon Sigiſmund was, however, choſen king of Poland in 1587, upon which he endeavoured again to reſtore the Roman catholic religion in his dominions; but he died in 1592.

Charles, brother to king John, was choſen adminiſtrator of Sweden; and being a ſtrenuous proteſtant, his nephew Sigiſmund endeavoured to drive him from the adminiſtratorſhip, but without effect; till at laſt he and his family were excluded from the ſucceſſion to the crown, which was conferred upon Charles in 1599. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigiſmund, who was himſelf a powerful prince, and at the head of a great party both in Sweden and Ruſſia, was turbulent; which gave the Danes encouragement to invade Sweden. Their conduct was checked by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, though then a minor, and heir apparent to Sweden. Upon the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was declared of age by the ſtates though then only in his eighteenth year. Guſtavus, ſoon after his acceſſion, found himſelf, through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Ruſſians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite diſadvantages; all which he ſurmounted. He narrowly miſſed being maſter of Ruſſia; but the Ruſſians were ſo tenacious of their independency, that his ſcheme was baffled. In 1617, he made a peace under the mediation of James I. of England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, with a ſum of money beſides.

The ideas of Guſtavus began now to extend. He had ſeen a vaſt deal of military ſervice, and he was aſſiſted by the counſels of La Gardie, one of the beſt generals and wiſeſt ſtateſmen of his age. His troops, by perpetual war, had become the beſt diſciplined and moſt warlike in Europe; and he carried his ambition farther than hiſtorians are willing to acknowledge. The princes of the houſe of Auſtria were, it is certain, early jealous of his enterpriſing ſpirit, and ſupported his ancient implacable enemy Sigiſmund, whom Guſtavus defeated. In 1627, he formed the ſiege of Dantzick,

zick, in which he was unſucceſsful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the ſudden riſe of the Viſtula, added ſo much to his military character, that the proteſtant cauſe placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the houſe of Auſtria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the moſt rapid and wonderful ſucceſſes: even the mention of each would exceed our bounds. It is ſufficient to ſay, that after taking Riga, and over-running Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious: and from thence, in 1630, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburgh, defeated the famous Count Tilly, the Auſtrian general, who was till then thought invincible; and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenſtein, another Auſtrian general, of equal reputation, was appointed to the command againſt Guſtavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen in 1632, after gaining a battle, which, had he ſurvived, would probably have put a period to the Auſtrian greatneſs.

The amazing abilities of Guſtavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared ſo fully as after his death. He left behind him a ſet of generals trained by himſelf, who maintained the glory of the Swediſh army, with moſt aſtoniſhing valour and ſucceſs. The names of duke Bernard, Baunier, Torſtenſon, Wrangel, and others, and their prodigious actions in war never can be forgotten in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what courſe Guſtavus would have purſued, had his life been prolonged, and his ſucceſſes continued; but there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe, that he had in his eye ſomewhat more than the relief of the proteſtants, and the reſtoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor Oxenſtiern was as conſummate a politician as he was a warrior: and during the minority of his daughter Chriſtina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with ſuch ſucceſs, that ſhe in a manner dictated the peace of Weſtphalia, 1648, which threw the affairs of Europe into a new ſyſtem.

Chriſtina was but ſix years of age when her father was killed. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court, Deſcartes, Salmaſius, and other learned men, to whom ſhe was not, however, extremely liberal. She expreſſed a value for Grotius; and ſhe was an excellent judge of the polite arts; but illiberal and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the ſame time diſcharged all the duties of her high ſtation; and though her generals were baſely betrayed by France, ſhe continued to ſupport the honour of her crown. Being reſolved not to marry, ſhe reſigned her crown to her couſin Charles Guſtavus, ſon to the duke of Deux Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great ſucceſs againſt the Poles: he drove their king, John Caſimir, into Sileſia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their uſual inconſtancy, they broke. His progreſs upon the ice againſt Denmark has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever in 1660. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Charles XI. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it neceſſary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the iſland of Bornholm, and Drontheim in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the ſame time with Ruſſia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very reſpectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age, he received a ſubſidy from the French king, Lewis XIV. but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland againſt him. He afterwards joined with France againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but being beaten in Germany at Felem-Bellin, a powerful

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confederacy was formed againſt him. The elector of Brandenburgh made himſelf maſter of the Swediſh Pomerania; the Biſhop of Munſter over-ran Bremen and Verden, and the Danes took Wiſmar, and ſeveral places in Schonen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles, by the treaty of St. Germain, which followed that of Nimeguen in 1678, recovered all he had loſt, except ſome places in Germany. He then married Ulrica Leonora, the king of Denmark's ſiſter; but made a very bad uſe of the tranquillity he had regained: for he enſlaved and beggared his people, that he might render his power deſpotic, and his army formidable. The ſtates loſt all their power; and Sweden was now reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to loſe his head and his right hand, for the boldneſs of his remonſtrance in favour of his countrymen; but he ſaved himſelf by flight; and Charles became ſo powerful, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryſwick, 1697, were opened under his mediation.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was ſucceeded by his minor ſon, the famous Charles XII. The hiſtory of no prince is better known than that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen; but it was ſet aſide for an earlier date by the management of Count Piper, who became thereby his firſt miniſter. Soon after his acceſſion, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muſcovy, formed a powerful confederacy againſt him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He made head againſt them all; and beſieging Copenhagen, he dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Daniſh majeſty, by which the duke of Holſtein was re-eſtabliſhed in his dominions. The czar Peter was at this time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had beſieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but ſuch was his impatience, that he advanced at the head of 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Ruſſians, and raiſed the ſiege. Such were his ſucceſſes, and ſo numerous his priſoners, that the Ruſſians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike achievements equalled if they did not excel thoſe of Guſtavus Adolphus. He dethroned Auguſtus king of Poland; but ſtained all his laurels by putting the brave count Patkul to a death equally painful and ignominious. He raiſed Staniſlaus to the crown of Poland in 1705; and his name carried with it ſuch terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe, and among others by the duke of Marlborough in the name of queen Anne, amidſt the full carreer of her ſucceſſes againſt France. His ſtubbornneſs and implacable diſpoſition, however, were ſuch, that he cannot be conſidered in a better light than that of an illuſtrious madman; for he loſt in the battle of Pultowa, 1709, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himſelf with 300 Swedes againſt 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worſe than frantic. The Turks found it however convenient for their affairs to ſet him at liberty. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madneſs; and after his return to his dominions, he proſecuted his revenge againſt Denmark till he was killed by a cannon ſhot, as it is generally ſaid, at the ſiege of Fredericſhall, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-ſix years of age. It has been ſuppoſed that Charles was not in reality killed by a ſhot from the walls of Fredericſhall, but that a piſtol from ſome nearer hand, from one of thoſe about him, gave the deciſive blow, which put an end to the life of this celebrated monarch.

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This opinion is ſaid to be very prevalent among the beſt informed perſons in Sweden. And it appears that the Swedes were tired of a prince under whom they had loſt their richeſt provinces, their braveſt troops, and their national riches; and who yet, untamed by adverſity, purſued an unſucceſsful and pernicious war, nor would ever have liſtened to the voice of peace, or conſulted the internal tranquillity of his country.

Charles XII. was ſucceeded, as hath already been mentioned, by his ſiſter, the princeſs Ulrica Eleanora, wife to the hereditary prince of Heſſe. We have alſo ſeen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given ſome account of the capitulation ſigned by the queen and her huſband, when they entered upon the exerciſe of government. Their firſt care was to make peace with Great Britain, which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent their farther loſſes by the progreſs of the Ruſſian, the Daniſh, the Saxon, and other arms, made many great ſacrifices to obtain peace from thoſe powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed that dangerous party in the kingdom under the name of the *Hats*, which hath been already ſpoken of; which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. Their Swediſh majeſties having no children, it was neceſſary to ſettle the ſucceſſion; eſpecially as the duke of Holſtein was deſcended from the queen's eldeſt ſiſter, and was at the ſame time the preſumptive heir to the empire of Ruſſia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, prince Frederic of Heſſe Caſſel, nephew to the king, the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The duke of Holſtein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Ruſſia. The czarina interpoſed, and offered to reſtore all the conqueſts ſhe had made from Sweden, excepting a ſmall diſtrict in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holſtein's uncle, the biſhop of Lubeck, as their hereditary prince and ſucceſſor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty. This peace was ſo firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Daniſh majeſty thought proper to drop all the effects of his reſentment, and forget the indignity done to his ſon. The prince's ſucceſſor, Adolphus Frederic, married the princeſs Ulrica, ſiſter to the king of Pruſſia, and entered into the poſſeſſion of his new dignity in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, and much haraſſed by the contending Swediſh factions, and found his ſituation extremely troubleſome, in conſequence of the reſtraints and oppoſition which he met with from the ſenate. He paſſed the greateſt part of his reign very diſagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February 1771, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Guſtavus the Third, the late king, who poſſeſſed abilities greatly ſuperior to thoſe of his father.

He was about five and twenty years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden: his underſtanding had been much cultivated, he had an inſinuating addreſs, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death, from whence he wrote in the moſt gracious terms to the ſenate, repeatedly aſſuring them that he deſigned to govern according to the laws. In conſequence of the death of his predeceſſor, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to ſettle the form of the coronation oath. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28th of March, 1772, his majeſty ſolemnly ſigned and ſwore to obſerve twenty-four articles relative to his future adminiſtration of government. This was termed a capitulation; and among the articles were the following: "The king promiſes before God to ſupport the government of the kingdom, as then eſtabliſhed; to

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maintain the rights and liberties of the ſtates, the liberty and ſecurity of all his ſubjects, and to reign with gentleneſs and equity according to the laws of the kingdom, the form of the regency as it was eſtabliſhed in the year 1720, and conformable to the preſent act of capitulation. In conſequence of the declaration of the ſtates, the king ſhall regard any perſon, who ſhall openly or clandeſtinely endeavour to introduce abſolute ſovereignty, as an enemy to the kingdom, and as a traitor to his country, as every perſon muſt take an oath reſpecting this matter, before he can take poſſeſſion of any employment. With regard to the affairs of the cabinet and the ſenate, the king promiſes to follow the regulations of the year 1720 upon that head, which were to be directed always by a majority of votes, and never to do any thing therein without, and much leſs, againſt, their advice. To the end that the council of ſtate may be ſo much the more convinced of the inviolable deſigns of his majeſty, and of his ſincere love for the good of his people, he declares them to be entirely diſengaged from their oath of fidelity, in caſe that he wilfully acts contrary to his coronation-oath, and to this capitulation. And laſtly, the king threatens any perſon with his higheſt diſpleaſure, who ſhall be ſo inconſiderate as to propoſe to him a greater degree of power and ſplendor than is marked out in this act of capitulation, as his majeſty deſires only to gain the affections of his faithful ſubjects, and to be their powerful defender againſt any attempts which may be made upon their lawful liberties."

But ſcarcely had the king taken theſe ſolemn oaths to rule according to the then eſtabliſhed form of government, and accepted the crown upon theſe conditions, before he formed a plan to govern as he thought proper; regarding theſe oaths only as matters of ceremony. And he made uſe of every art, the moſt profound diſſimulation, and the utmoſt dexterity and addreſs, in order to render this hazardous enterpriſe ſucceſsful. At his firſt arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which could increaſe his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who preſented themſelves. Neither rank, fortune, nor intereſt, were neceſſary to obtain acceſs to him; it was ſufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cauſe of complaint to lay before him. He liſtened to the meaneſt of his ſubjects with affability, and entered into the minuteſt details that concerned them: he informed himſelf of their private affairs, and ſeemed to intereſt himſelf in their happineſs. This conduct cauſed him to be conſidered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idoliſe him. In the mean time there happened ſome contentions between the different orders of the Swediſh ſtates; and no methods were left untried to foment theſe jealouſies. Emiſſaries were likewiſe planted in every part of the kingdom, for the purpoſe of ſowing diſcontent among the inhabitants, of rendering them diſaffected to the eſtabliſhed government, and of exciting them to an inſurrection. At length, when the king found his ſcheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper meaſures for bringing a conſiderable number of the officers and ſoldiers* into his intereſt, on the 19th of Auguſt 1772 he totally overturned the Swediſh conſtitution of government. In leſs than an hour he made himſelf maſter of all the military force of Stockholm. He planted grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, at the

* The fidelity which was manifeſted by a private ſoldier, on this occaſion, deſerves to be recorded. The night preceding the revolution, the king, being deſirous of viſiting the arſenal, went thither, and ordered the centinel to admit him. The latter refuſed. "Do you know who you are ſpeaking to?" ſaid the king. "Yes," replied the ſoldier, "but I likewiſe know my duty."—*Vide* a very judicious and well-written account of this extraordinary revolution in Sweden, publiſhed by Charles Francis Sheridan, eſq. who was ſecretary to the Britiſh envoy in Sweden at the time of the revolution.

door

door of the council-chamber, in which the ſenate were aſſembled, and made all the members of it priſoners. And that no news might be carried to any other part of Sweden, of the tranſaction in which the king was engaged, till the ſcheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arſenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and other parts of the town, and particularly at all the avenues leading to it. Soldiers ſtood over theſe with matches ready lighted; all communication with the country was cut off, no one without a paſſport from the king being allowed to leave the city. The ſenators were then confined in ſeparate apartments of the palace; and many others who were ſuppoſed to be zealouſly attached to the liberties of Sweden, were put under arreſt. The remainder of the day the king employed in viſiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the magiſtrates, the colleges, and city militia. Oaths were alſo tendered the next day to the public in general, to whom he addreſſed a ſpeech, which he concluded by declaring that his only intention was to reſtore tranquillity to his native country, by ſuppreſſing licentiouſneſs, overturning the ariſtocratic form of government, reviving the old Swediſh liberty, and reſtoring the ancient laws of Sweden, ſuch as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," ſaid he, "as I have already "done, all idea of the abhorred abſolute power, or what is called *ſove-* "*reignty*, eſteeming it now, as before, my greateſt glory to be the firſt "citizen among a truly free people." Heralds then went through the different quarters of the town to proclaim an aſſembly of the ſtates for the following day. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the diet ſhould abſent himſelf, he ſhould be conſidered and treated as a traitor to his country.

On the morning of the 21ſt of Auguſt, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take poſſeſſion of the ſquare, where the houſe of nobles ſtands. The palace was inveſted on all ſides with troops, and cannon were planted in the court, facing the hall where the ſtates were to be aſſembled. Theſe were not only charged, but ſoldiers ſtood over them with matches ready lighted in their hands. The ſeveral orders of the ſtates were here compelled to aſſemble by the king's order, and theſe military preparations were made in order to aſſiſt their deliberations. The king being ſeated on his throne, ſurrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addreſſed a ſpeech to the ſtates, he ordered a ſecretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the ſtates for their acceptance. As they were ſurrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marſhal of the diet, and the ſpeakers of the other orders, ſigned the form of government; and the ſtates took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himſelf. This extraordinary tranſaction was concluded in a manner equally extraordinary. The king drew a book of pſalms from his pocket, and taking off his crown, began to ſing *Te Deum*, in which he was joined by the aſſembly. He afterwards gave them to underſtand, that he intended in ſix years' time again to convene an aſſembly of the ſtates. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodſhed, in which the Swedes ſurrendered that conſtitution, which their forefathers had bequeathed to them after the death of Charles the Twelfth, as a bulwark againſt any deſpotic attempts of their future monarchs.

The Swedes, at ſome periods, have diſcovered an ardent love of liberty; at others, they have ſeemed only fitted for ſlavery; and when they were labouring to render themſelves free, they have wanted that ſound political knowledge, which would have pointed out to them the proper methods for ſecuring their future freedom. The moſt capital defect of the Swediſh conſtitution was the total want of all balance of its parts; and the diviſion

of the Swediſh nation into three diſtinct claſſes of nobles, burghers, and peaſants, whoſe intereſts were perpetually claſhing, has been a circumſtance very unfavourable to the liberty of the Swedes. The power of their kings was much reſtrained; but no ſufficient regulations were adopted for ſecuring the perſonal freedom of the ſubject. Theſe defects in the Swediſh conſtitution paved the way for the late revolution; but it is, notwithſtanding, a juſt ſubject of ſurpriſe, that a bold and hardy people, who had ſo cautiouſly limited the power of their prince, ſhould at once, without a ſtruggle, ſuffer him to proceed to ſo great an extenſion of his authority. It appears, however, that the exorbitant power which Guſtavus the Third had thus aſſumed, he exerciſed with ſome degree of moderation; and at an aſſembly of the ſtates, in 1786, after many points were referred to them by the king, and debated with great freedom, he diſmiſſed them with condeſcenſion and gentleneſs, at the ſame time remitting the tenth part of the ſubſidy which they had granted him.

On the 12th of July, 1788, hoſtilities commenced on the frontiers of Finland, between a body of Ruſſian light troops, and a detachment of the Swedes poſted on the bridge of Pomalaſund. After various engagements both by land and ſea, in which Guſtavus gave a diſplay of the moſt extraordinary abilities, an agreement for eſtabliſhing an everlaſting peace, and fixing the frontiers of Ruſſia, as they were before the war broke out, was ſigned at Werela, on the river Kymene, between the plenipotentiaries of the empreſs of Ruſſia and the king of Sweden.

A diet ſummoned by the king to meet at Geſſlé, a ſolitary place on the Bothnic Gulf, near ſeventy miles from Stockholm, excited much attention. Some imagined that the diet might aſſert the national freedom againſt a deſpotic monarch; but Guſtavus had guarded againſt any ſuch deſign, by his choice of the ſpot, and by poſting his mercenary troops around. He found ſome difficulty in gaining his only intention, that of raiſing money, and was obliged to put up with a part of his demand.

The diet being diſſolved, the king returned to Stockholm, where, at a maſquerade in the opera-houſe, of the night of the 16th of March, 1792, he was ſhot with a piſtol by an aſſaſſin, named Ankerſtroem, in conſequence of a conſpiracy among ſome of the diſcontented nobles; and having lived in great pain till the 29th of that month, he expired, in the forty-fifth year of his reign.

The reflection of dying ingloriouſly through the means of a vile aſſaſſin is ſaid to have embittered the laſt moments of the king's life much more than even the agoniſing pain of his wounds. He ſhowed the ſame noble and brave ſpirit on his death-bed, as he had done before his enemies during his life-time. He retained all his mental facultries to the laſt, which enabled him ſo well to arrange the future government of his country. The wounds at firſt indicated the moſt promiſing appearance of recovery, and the ſlugs were all extracted: but ſome ruſty pieces of iron had penetrated ſo far into the body as to render any ſurgical operation immediate death. The preſence of mind ſhewn by Guſtavus during his illneſs was very ſingular. While he awaited for the arrival of his ſurgeons in an apartment adjoining to the ſaloon of the opera-houſe, ſeveral of the foreign miniſters preſented themſelves, to whom he ſaid, "I have given orders, "gentlemen, that the gates of the city ſhall be ſhut. You will therefore "not take it ill, if you ſhould be unable to ſend couriers to your courts "until after three days. Your advices will then be more certain, ſince it "will be probably known whether I can ſurvive or not." His converſation then related to the effects which the accident might produce in Europe; and the love of fame, which was always his predominant paſſion, was perceptible in his remarks.

Gene-

Plate V.

Northern Part of RUSSIA, or, MUSCOVY in EUROPE.

British Miles 69½ to a Degree

50 100 200

FROZEN OCEAN

RUSSIAN LAPLAND

WHITE SEA

GULF OF BOTHNIA

GULF OF FINLAND

GULF OF RIGA

FINLAND

ESTHONIA

LIVONIA

INGERMANLAND

KARELIA

OBDORIA

NORWEGIAN LAPLAND

North Cape

Wardehus

Enaraby

Pasis R.

Kogerskoi

L. Enara

L. Kola

Kola

Kurabelnoi

Ekanskoi

L. Paza

Babenskoi

Kandalax

Uspenskoi

L. Seyg

Orlow

Umba

Kerel

Olonica

Ponoiskoi

Pitea

Tornea

Ulea

L. Top

L. Iaura

Umea

Carleby

Wasa

Christianstadt

Biorneburg

Aland I.

Nystadt

Abo

Wyborg

Frederickshum

Wittmanstrand

Kexholm

Lake Ladoga

Olonetz

Sitskoi

Siaskoe

Petrowskoi

Salmis

Onega

Rezowa

Padoga

Kargopol

Czakonda Nikolskoi

Archangelskoi

Bielozero

Totma

Suchona R.

Ilinskoi

Pokrowskoi

Wologda

Galickaja

Ukolaewskoi

Sudta

Mologa R.

Mologa

Romanow

Poschonic

Liubim

Galicz

Uniza

Zarerezkoi

Borowicz

Star Russa

Ilmen

Novogorod

Operewsis

Woldow R.

Tiisinskoi

Ciuzino

Suchotskoi

Pereslawskoi

Kobyl

Pleskov

Porchow

Wolmar

Wenden

Riga

Mitau

Gulf of Riga

Dagoe

Revel

Hapsal

Weissenstein

Narva

Jamburg

Peterhof

Petersburg

Kopori

Ingermanland

Ladoga

Tolchof

Pernow

Pelin

Dorpat

Gedon

Arensburg

Ocsel I.

Wardehus

Kogerskoi

Kolgow Ille

C. Kanin

Kanin Ille

Nuriga

Pustozerskoi

Senza

Bogorodskoi

L. Warzeskoe

Pesa R.

Nikolskoi

Mezen

Mezen R.

Pesma R.

Pyskoi

Kulon R.

Mezgra

Zolotica

Archangel

Olenskoi

Pinega R.

Kewrol

Stretinskoi

Pinega

Pinetskoi

Surskoi

Wedenskoi

Seletskaja

Kolskoi

Kalgacrecha

Onegskoi

Palanskoi

Wygoretskoi

Lowenetskoi

Liuszenetskoi

Indozero

Pergula

Lobskoi

Gubaselki

Cuboro

Rozestwenskoi

Waga R.

Waga

Wedenskoi

Ilinskoi

Ustiug

Lalskoi

Wolczinskoi

Wysgorskoi

Yarenlk

Rakulskoi

R. Dwina

Priluzskoi

Turenskoi

Konezkoi

Ponodwskoi

Derewjanna

Spaskoi

Wopokas

Podoznok

Rostowskago

Kaigorodok

Pustkin

Sol Kamskaja

Czerdyn or Permia

Kama R.

Kwa R.

Pestowskoi

Kuzmodemo

Shutka

Czusowoi

Viatka

Slobodskoi

Sezemma

Troickoi

Ozerskoi

Kungur

Frolowskoi

Egoriewskoi

Mologariew

Arctic Circle

Longitude 25 East from London

l'Isle

45 50 55 60 65

N O C E A N

GULF OF KA

Naygata

Str: of

Olenoi I.

Longa I.

Kolgow Ille

Kortaizha R.

Narwa

Pustozerskoi

Arctic Circle

Bogorodskoi

I. Warzeskoe

Peza R.

Nikolskoi

Perma R.

Mezen R.

Mezen

Usa R

Olenskoi

Pyskoi

Kewrol

Pinega R.

Surskoi

Wedenzkoi

Turenskoi

Konezkoi

Pomodinskoi

Spaskoi

Wopokas

Prilutskoi

Yarenzkoi

R. Dwina

Waga

Rakulskoi

Wysgorskoi

Derewjanna

Podezmok

Wedenskoi

Wyczegodskaia

Wolczinskoi

Ustiug

Lalskoi

Rostowskago

Czerdyn on Kyma R.

or Permia

Kaigorodok

Pustkin

Sol Kamskaia

Pokrowskoi

Uspenskoi

Iwiskoi

Suchona R.

Pestowskoi

Orel

Kama R.

Kuznetcowo

Slutka

Czusowoi

Kolcarien

Sudu

Pavenen

Calitz

Unza

Senkowskoi

Troicker

Ossinskoi

Chmyrr

Plate VI.

Southern Part of RUSSIA, or, MUSCOVY in EUROPE.

Russian Wersts 104 to a Degree. 50 100 200 300

British Miles 69½ to a Degree. 50 100 200

25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60

55 50 45

Longitude East from London. 30 35 40 50

F

45 50 55

troma
Turiewec
Wolga
Volkowo
Balachna
iscligorod
5ka R.
Vk
Arzamas
Korczina
tma
Szatsk
Kadom
Temnikow
Mokszaisk
Penza
Lma R.
bow
T Z
oper
Lamow
ik
glehsk
Choperskaja
Burulck R.
Medwedira R.
Projected Canal
Skuriczenskaja
Ostrowskaja
aja
oriewskaja
Donskaja Gracza
Zaritzyn
henskaja
H
nskaja
R.
Salt R.
R.
Troiskoi
Wasilgorod
NISCH GOROD
Kurmysz
Alatyr
Saransk
Demitrowsk
Berezenki
Sarratow
Priwolnoe
Topowitskaja
Sarpa R.
Kuma R.
Mozdok
Malka R.
Orzum
Sanczursk
Caremokkszaisk
Wolga R.
Swiask
Kasan
Kubani
Karsun
Sursk
Troickoe
Penza
Sura R.
Karzaka
Petrowsk
Catharinenstadt
Achmetskoe
Panje
L. Salsus Elton
Topowitskaja
Ezerniojarskaja
Achtuba R.
Wolga
Krugloi Gorodok
Naur
Czernlenoi
Kilmes
Malmys
Alat
Viatka R.
Usady
Lanszew
Szesminsk
Biljarsk
Sinbirsk
Stawropol
Troickoe
Samara
Syzran
Kaszpor
Wolga R.
Irgiskoe
Terkul R.
Little Uzen R.
Great Uzen R.
L. Kamysz Samara
R. Caszan
Osa
Sarapul
Usady
Viatka R.
Harakulina
Bielaja R.
Ufa R.
Ufa
Ik R.
Dema R.
Kinel R.
Samara R.
Orenburg
Ural R.
Ilek R.
Uralsk
Mozeralskoi
Sacharnaja
Grebenszczikowa
Mmchala
Guriew
Krasnojarskaja
Astrachan
Kuma R.
Mozdok
Naur
Czernlenoi
Malka R.
Kizljor
Aksai
55
50
45

Southern Part of
RUSSIA,
or,
MUSCOVY
in
EUROPE.

General baron d'Armfeldt, one of his moſt affectionate friends, entered the room, pale with horror, and unable to utter a word. As he approached, the king, ſtretching out his hand to him, ſaid, "What's the matter, my friend? Be not alarmed on my account. You know by experience, what a wound is:" thus flatteringly alluding to a wound which the general had received in Finland.

Finding that he was not likely to ſurvive, he ſettled all his affairs, as a man does who is preparing for a journey, with all the compoſure imaginable. He ſent for his ſon the prince-royal, and addreſſed a ſpeech to him on the nature of good government, in a manner ſo truly affecting, that all thoſe who were preſent were diſſolved in tears. At eight o'clock, on the morning of his death, he received the ſacrament. The queen had taken leave of him the evening before; and at half paſt ten he died in great agonies.

The prince-royal, being fourteen years of age, was immediately proclaimed king, by the name of Guſtavus Adolphus; and the duke of Sudermania, his uncle, and brother to the late king, in compliance with his majeſty's will, was declared ſole regent, and guardian of the young ſovereign, till he attain his majority, which was fixed at the age of eighteen. We have only to add, that the prudence and conciliatory meaſures of the regent have eſtabliſhed the tranquillity of this kingdom beyond expectation.

Guſtavus Adolphus IV. the preſent king of Sweden, was born Nov. 1, 1778, and ſucceeded his father Guſtavus III. who was ſhot the 16th, and died the 29th March, 1792; born Jan. 24, 1746; married Oct. 17, 1766, to the princeſs-royal of Denmark, by whom he had iſſue Guſtavus Adolphus, the preſent king.

Brothers and ſiſters to the late king:

1. Charles, duke of Sudermania, born Oct. 7, 1748.
2. Frederic Adolphus, duke of Weſt-Gothland, born July 18, 1750.
3. Sophia Albertina, abbeſs of Quedlingburgh, born in Oct. 1753.

MUSCOVY, OR THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1500	between	23 and 65 East longitude.
Breadth	1100		47 and 72 North latitude.

Ruſſia in Europe contains 1,194,976 ſquare miles, with 17 inhabitants to each.

DIVISIONS AND NAMES. ACCORDING to the moſt authentic accounts of this mighty empire, it conſiſts of fifteen (Mr. Voltaire ſays ſixteen) provinces, or governments: which are comprehended again under nineteen general governments *; beſides part of Carelia, Eſthonia, Ingria, Livonia, and part of Finland, which were conquered from Sweden; the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, anciently the Taurica Cherſoneſus, a peninſula in the Euxine ſea, ſubject to the Turks formerly, but added in the year 1783 to the Ruſſian empire, with the iſle of Taman, and part of Cuban †; alſo the duchy of Courland in Poland, of which the empreſs of Ruſſia has now the entire diſpoſal.

* Zimmermann, p. 25.

† The Ruſſians are ſuppoſed to have gained above a million of ſubjects by this ceſſion.

The following table will give ſome idea of the Ruſſian empire properly ſo called, or Ruſſia in Europe, with its acquiſitions from Sweden in the preſent century; and alſo of the Ruſſian empire in its moſt extenſive ſenſe; for we muſt alſo conclude all the acquiſitions in Tartary, now known by the name of Siberia; the whole comprehending the northern parts of Europe and Aſia, ſtretching from the Baltic and Sweden on the Weſt, to Kamtſchatka, and the Eaſtern Ocean; and on the North, from the Frozen land, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caſpian ſeas, Great Tartary, Chineſe Tartary, and other unknown regions in Aſia.

The country now compriſed under the name of Ruſſia or the Ruſſias, is of an extent nearly equal to all the reſt of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius ſubdued by Alexander, or both put together, as may be ſeen by turning to the table, page 27, to which we may add the authority of Voltaire.

Ruſſian empire in Europe.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
Greek Church.	Ruſ. or Muſ.	784,050	1160	105	Moſcow.	
	Belgorod,	72,900	375	285	Waronetz.	
	Don Coſſacs,	57,000	400	280	Panchina.	
	Uk. Coſſacs,	45,000	330	205	Kiow.	
	Lapland,	72,000	405	270	Kola.	
Conquered from Sweden ſince 1700.	Ruſ. Finland,	41,310	320	180	Vyburg.	
	Livonia,	21,525	218	145	Riga.	
	Ingria.	9,100	175	90	PETERSBURGH.	N. Lat. 60. E. L. 30-25.
Seized from the Turks in 1783.	Crim. Tar.	8,200	160	15	Kaffa.	
Ruſſian empire in Aſia.						
Chriſtians and Idolaters.	Muſcovy, Tartary, & Siberia,	2,000,000	3150	1500	Tobolſky.	
	Kalm. Tart.	850,000	2100	750	Aſtrachan.	
By the partition Treaty between the Emperor, Pruſſia, and Ruſſia.	Lithuania in Poland.	64,000	300	250	Grodno.	
	Total.	1,025,685				

Ruſſia has been alſo ſubdivided into thirty-one provinces, viz.

Northern Provinces.
1. Lapland,
2. Samoieda,
3. Ballamorenſky,
4. Meſeen,
5. Dwina,
6. Syrianes,
7. Permia,
8. Rubeninſki,
9. Belaeſeda.

Middle Provinces.
10. Rezen, or Pereſlaf,
11. Belozero,
12. Wolagda,
13. Jeraſlaf,
14. Tweer,
15. Moſcow,
16. Belgorod.

Pro-Eaſtern Provinces.
17. Bulgar,
18. Kaſan,
19. Tſcheremiſſi,
20. Little Novogorod,
21. Don Coſſacs.

Weſtern Provinces.
22. Great Novogorod,
23. Ruſſian Finland,
24. Kexholm,
25. Kaleria,
26. Ingria.

Southern Provinces.
27. Livonia,
28. Smolenſko,
29. Zernigof,
30. Seefsk,
31. Ukraine, or country of the old Coſſacs.

Mr.

Mr. Tooke, chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Peterſburgh, who has lately publiſhed an account of Ruſſia, has enumerated the following nations as comprehended in this great empire:

The Monguls,
The Kalmucs,
The Tartars,
The Samoiedes,
The Oſtiacs,
The Burattians,
The Jakutans,
The Tunguſians,
The Voguls,
The Laplanders,
The Finns,
The Lattonians,
The Eſtonians,
The Lieffs,
The Ingrians,
The Tſcheremiſſes,
The Tſcouwaſches,
The Mordvines,
The Votiaks,
The Terptyaireis,
The Tartars of Kaſan and Orenburg,
The Tartars of Tobolſk,
The Tartars of Tomſk,
The Nogayan Tartars,
The Tartars of the Ob,
The Tſchoulym Tartars,
The Katſchintz Tartars,
The Teleutes,
The Abinzes,
The Biryouſſes,
The Coſſacs,
The Kurilians,
The Kiſtim and Toulibert Tartars,
The Vergo Tomſkoi Tartars,
The Sayan Tartars,
The Touralinzes,
The Bougharians,
The Baſchkirians,
The Meſtſceraiks,
The Barabinzes,
The Kirkguiſians,
The Beltirians,
The Yakoutes,
The Kamtſchadales,

and various others; but ſome of which muſt be conſidered rather as diſtinct tribes than as diſtinct nations.

As to the names of Ruſſia and Muſcovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, they probably are owing to the ancient inhabitants, the Ruſſi, or Boruſſi, and the river Moſca, upon which the ancient capital Moſcow was built; but of this we know nothing certain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MINERALS. In the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, or Muſcovy, the longeſt day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas, in the moſt northern, the ſun is ſeen in ſummer two months above the horizon. The reader from this will naturally conclude, that there is in Muſcovy a vaſt diverſity of ſoil as well as climate, and the extremes of both are ſeen and felt in this vaſt empire.

The ſeverity of the climate, however, in Ruſſia properly ſo called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who reſided eleven years in Ruſſia, obſerves, that the cold in St. Peterſburg, by Fahrenheit's ſcale, is, during the months of December, January, and February, uſually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point; though commonly, in the courſe of the winter, it is for a week or ten days ſome degrees lower. The ſame writer remarks, that it is very difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold ſo great; but it may help to give ſome notion of it to inform the reader, that when a perſon walks out in that ſevere weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye laſhes. As the common peaſants uſually wear their beards, you may ſee them hanging at the chin like a ſolid lump of ice. But even in that ſtate, the beard is found very uſeful in protecting the glands of the throat: and the ſoldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to ſupply their place. All the parts of the face, which are expoſed, are very liable to be frozen: though it has often been obſerved, that the perſon himſelf does not know when the freezing begins; but is commonly told of it firſt by thoſe who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with ſnow, the uſual way to thaw it. It is alſo remarked that the part, which has once been frozen, is ever after moſt li-

able to be frozen again. In ſome very ſevere winters, ſparrows, though a hardy ſpecies of birds, have been ſeen quite numbed by the intenſe cold, and unable to fly: and drivers, when ſitting on their loaded carriages, have ſometimes been found frozen to death in that poſture. When the thermometer has ſtood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water thrown up into the air by an engine, ſo as to ſpread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found by Dr. King frozen into a ſolid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of ſtrong ale has alſo been frozen in an hour and a half: but in this ſubſtance there was about a tea cup full in the middle unfrozen, which was as ſtrong and inflammable as brandy and ſpirits of wine. But notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the cold in Ruſſia, the inhabitants have ſuch various means and proviſions to guard againſt it, that they ſuffer much leſs from it than might be expected. The houſes of perſons in tolerable circumſtances are ſo well protected, both without doors and within, that they are ſeldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houſes in Ruſſia is by an oven conſtructed with ſeveral flues; and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. Theſe ovens conſume a much ſmaller quantity of wood than might be imagined; and yet they ſerve at the ſame time for the ordinary people to dreſs their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, and ſuffer it to burn only till the thickeſt black ſmoke is evaporated; they then ſhut down the chimney to retain all the reſt of the heat in the chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat 24 hours, and is commonly ſo warm that they ſit with very little covering, eſpecially children, who are uſually in their ſhirts. The windows in the huts of the poor are very ſmall, that as little cold may be admitted as poſſible: in the houſes of perſons of condition, the windows are caulked up againſt winter, and commonly have double glaſs frames. In ſhort, they can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactneſs, opening or ſhutting the flues to increaſe or diminiſh the heat. When the Ruſſians go out, they are clothed ſo warmly, that they almoſt bid defiance to froſt and ſnow; and it is obſervable that the wind is ſeldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

One advantage, which the Ruſſians derive from the ſeverity of their climate, is the preſerving of proviſions by the froſt. Good houſewives, as ſoon as the froſt ſets in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of ſnow between them, and then take them out for uſe as occaſion requires: by which means they ſave the nouriſhment of the animal for ſeveral months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Peterſburgh, is eſteemed the fineſt they have; nor can it be diſtinguiſhed from what is freſh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Peterſburgh are by this means ſupplied in winter with all manner of proviſions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwiſe be poſſible; and it is not a little curious to ſee the vaſt ſtacks of whole hogs, ſheep, fiſh, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for ſale. The method of thawing frozen proviſions in Ruſſia, is by immerging them in cold water; for when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it ſeems to occaſion a violent fermentation, and almoſt a ſudden putrefaction; but when produced by cold water, the ice ſeems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a tranſparent incruſtation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as freſh as if juſt gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes ſo rancid and ſtrong that it cannot be eaten.

The quickneſs of vegetation in Ruſſia is pretty much the ſame as has been deſcribed in Scandinavia, or Sweden and Denmark. The ſnow is

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the natural manure of Ruſſia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miſerably fed; the ſoil produces a vaſt number of muſhrooms for their ſubſiſtence; and in ſome places, beſides oaks and firs, Ruſſia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, paſture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewiſe extract a ſpirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

That a great part of Ruſſia was populous in former days, is not to be diſputed; though it is equally certain, that the inhabitants, till lately, were but little acquainted with agriculture; and ſupplied the place of bread, as the inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of ſaw-duſt and a preparation of fiſh-bones. Peter the Great, and his ſucceſſors down to the preſent empreſs, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the ſoil is not every where proper for corn, yet its vaſt fertility in ſome provinces bids fair to make grain as common in Ruſſia as it is in the ſouthern countries of Europe. The vaſt communication by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, ſerves to ſupply one province with thoſe products of the earth in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are as plentiful in Ruſſia as in Scandinavia; and the people are daily improving in working them. Mountains of rich iron ore are found in ſome places, moſt of which produce the load-ſtone, and yield from 50 to 70 per cent. Rich ſilver and copper mines are found on the confines of Siberia.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. Ruſſia is in general a flat level country, except towards the north, where lie the Zimnopoias mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the earth. On the weſtern ſide of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains, and between the Black Sea and the Caſpian, Mount Caucaſus borders a range of vaſt plains extending on the ſea of Oral. And here we may obſerve, that, from Peterſburgh to Pekin, one ſhall hardly meet with a mountain on the road through Independent Tartary; and from Peterſburgh to the north part of France, by the road of Dantzic, Hamburgh and Amſterdam, we ſcarcely can perceive the ſmalleſt hill.

The moſt conſiderable rivers are the Wolga, or Volga, running eaſt and ſouth, which, after traverſing the greateſt part of Muſcovy, and winding a courſe of 3000 Engliſh miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian Sea; it is not only reckoned the largeſt, but one of the moſt fertile rivers of Europe; it produces all kinds of fiſh, and fertiliſes all the lands on each ſide with the richeſt trees, fruits, and vegetables; and it is remarkable, that in all this long courſe there is not a ſingle cataract to interrupt the navigation; but the nearer it approaches to its mouth, it multiplies its quantities of iſles, as it divides itſelf into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world: and all theſe arms divide themſelves into others ſtill leſs, which join and meet again, ſo that the Wolga diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moſcow preſerves a communication, not only with all the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, but even with Perſia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caſpian Sea. The Don, or Tanais, which divides the moſt eaſtern part of Ruſſia from Aſia; and in its courſe towards the eaſt, comes ſo near the Wolga, that the late czar had undertaken to have a communication between them by means of a canal: this grand project, however, was defeated by the irruption of the Tartars.

Tartars. This river, excluſive of its turnings and windings, diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæotis, or ſea of Aſoph, about four hundred miles from its riſe. The Boriſthenes, or Dnieper, which is likewiſe one of the largeſt rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Coſſacs, and that of the Nagaiſch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Kinburn, near Oczakow; it has thirteen cataracts within a ſmall diſtance. To theſe may be added the two Dwinas, one of which empties itſelf at Riga into the Baltic; the other has its ſource near Uſtiaga, and dividing itſelf into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White Sea.

Foreſts abound in this extenſive country; and the northern and northeaſtern provinces are in a manner deſert; nor can the few inhabitants they contain be called Chriſtians rather than Pagans.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS. Theſe do not differ greatly from thoſe deſcribed in the Scandinavian provinces to which we muſt refer the reader. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it makes prey of every creature it can maſter; and is ſaid to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree foreſts. The hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already deſcribed, afford their furs for cloathing the inhabitants; but the furs of the black foxes and ermine are more valuable in Ruſſia than elſewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almoſt the only beaſts of burden known in many parts of Ruſſia. The czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horſes for war and carriages; but thoſe employed in the ordinary purpoſes of life are but ſmall; as are their cows and ſheep.

We know of few or no birds in Ruſſia that have not been already deſcribed. The ſame may be ſaid of fiſhes, only the Ruſſians are better provided than their neighbours with ſturgeon, cod, ſalmon, and beluga: the latter reſembles a ſturgeon, and is often called the large ſturgeon; it is from twelve to fifteen feet in length, and weighs from 9 to 16 and 18 hundred weight; its fleſh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the ſturgeon and the beluga, the Ruſſians make the famous cavear, ſo much eſteemed for its richneſs and flavour, that it is often ſent in preſents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas they often find what is called the beluga-ſtone, which is concealed in that maſs of glandular fleſh which covers the poſterior parts of the dorſal ſpine, ſupplying the place of a kidney in fiſh. The inſtant it is taken from the fiſh, it is ſoft and moiſt, but quickly hardens in the air. Its ſize is that of a hen's egg, ſhape ſometimes oval and ſometimes flatted, and commonly ſells for a ruble. This ſtone is ſuppoſed by profeſſor Pallas, to belong to the genitals of the fiſh: it holds a conſiderable rank, though with little merit, among the domeſtic remedies of the Ruſſians, who ſcrape it, and, mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diſeaſes of children, and other diſorders.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] Nothing can be more injudicious, or remote from truth, than the accounts we have from authors, of the population of this vaſt empire; the whole of which, they think, does not exceed, at moſt, ſeven millions. It is ſurpriſing that ſuch a miſtake ſhould have continued ſo long, when we conſider the immenſe armies brought into the field by the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, and the bloody wars they maintained in Aſia and Europe. Mr. Voltaire is, perhaps, the firſt author who has attempted to undeceive the public in this reſpect; and has done it upon very authentic grounds, by producing a liſt, taken in 1747, of all the males who paid the capitation or poll-tax, and which amount to ſix millions ſix hundred and forty-ſix thouſand three hundred and ninety. In this number are included boys and old men; but girls and women are not reckoned, or boys born between the making one regiſter of the

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lands and another. Now if we only reckon triple the number of heads ſubject to be taxed, including women and girls, we ſhall find near twenty millions of ſouls. To this account may be added three hundred and fifty thouſand ſoldiers, and two hundred thouſand nobility and clergy; and foreigners of all kinds, who are likewiſe exempted from the poll-tax; as alſo (ſays Mr. Voltaire) the inhabitants of the conquered countries, namely Livonia, Eſthonia, Ingria, Carelia, and a part of Finland; the Ukraine, and the Don Coſſacs, the Kalmucs, and other Tartars; the Samoiedes, the Laplanders, the Oſtiacs, and all the idolatrous people of Siberia, a country of greater extent than China, are not included in this liſt. The new regiſter in 1764 contains 8,500,000 ſubject to the poll-tax; and a late ingenious writer, reſident ſome time in Ruſſia, gives the following eſtimate:

Lower claſs of people paying capitation-tax,	18,000,000
Conquered provinces,	1,200,000
Noble families,	60,000
Clergy,	100,000
Military,	360,000
Civil,	30,000
Ukraine, Siberia, Coſſacs, &c.	350,000
	20,100,000

To theſe muſt now be added near a million more by the acquiſitions of the Crimea, and a part of Cuban Tartary; and at leaſt, 1,500,000 in the provinces diſmembered from Poland.

As her imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias poſſeſſes many of the countries from whence the prodigious ſwarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire iſſued, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe, that her dominions muſt have been better peopled formerly than they are at preſent; twenty-four millions are but a thin population for the immenſe tract of country ſhe poſſeſſes. As the like decreaſe of inhabitants is obſervable in many other parts of the globe, we are to look for the reaſon in natural cauſes, which we cannot diſcuſs here. Perhaps the introduction of the ſmall-pox and the venereal diſeaſe may have aſſiſted in the depopulation; and it is likely that the prodigious quantity of ſtrong and ſpirituous liquors, conſumed by the inhabitants of the north, is unfriendly to generation.

The Ruſſians, properly ſo called, are in general a perſonable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, eſpecially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from thoſe of the Engliſh or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-ſight ſeems to be defective, occaſioned, probably, by the ſnow, which for a long time of the year is continually preſent to their eyes. Their officers and ſoldiers always poſſeſſed a large ſhare of paſſive valour; but in the late war with the king of Pruſſia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe; and in the late war with the Turks they greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves. They are implicitly ſubmiſſive to diſcipline, let it be ever ſo ſevere; they endure extreme hardſhips with great patience; and can content themſelves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Ruſſians were in general barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenneſs; no leſs than 4000 brandy-ſhops have been reckoned in Moſcow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyars, or nobles, lived in a continual ſtate of idleneſs and intoxication; and the moſt complete objects of miſery and barbarity preſented themſelves upon the ſtreets, while the court of Moſcow was by far the moſt ſplendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dreſſed after the moſt ſuperb Aſiatic manner; and their magnificence exceeded every idea that can be conceived from modern examples. The earl of Carliſle, in the account of his embaſſy, ſays, that he

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could ſee nothing but gold and precious ſtones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of thoſe and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter ſaw the bulk of his ſubjects, at his acceſſion to the throne, little better than beaſts of burden, to ſupport the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aſide their long robes, and dreſs in the European manner; and even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The other improvements in learning and the arts which he made ſhall be mentioned elſewhere. The Ruſſians, before his days, had hardly a ſhip upon their coaſts. They had no convenience for travelling, no pavements in their ſtreets, no places of public diverſion; and they entertained a ſovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At preſent a French or Engliſh gentleman may make a ſhift to live as comfortably and ſociably in Ruſſia as in moſt other parts of Europe. Their polite aſſemblies, ſince the acceſſion of the preſent empreſs, have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient uſages remain. It is, however, to be obſerved, that notwithſtanding the ſeverities of Peter, and the prudence of ſucceeding governments, drunkenneſs ſtill continues among all ranks; nor are even prieſts or ladies aſhamed of it on holidays.

The Ruſſians were formerly noted for ſo ſtrong an attachment to their native ſoil, that they ſeldom viſited foreign parts. This, however, was only the conſequence of their pride and ignorance; for Ruſſian nobility, beſides thoſe who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her imperial majeſty even intereſts herſelf in the education of young men of quality, in the knowledge of the world, and foreign ſervices, particularly that of the Britiſh fleet.

It is ſaid that the Ruſſian ladies were formerly as ſubmiſſive to their huſbands in their families as the latter are to their ſuperiors in the field; and that they thought themſelves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the diſcipline of a whip, manufactured by themſelves, which they preſented to their huſbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themſelves; and formerly conſiſted of ſome very whimſical rites, many of which are now diſuſed. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never ſeen each other, the bride is examined ſtark naked by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if poſſible, any defect they find in her perſon. On her wedding-day ſhe is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the prieſt has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or ſexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wiſhing that ſhe may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarſe and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even amongſt the loweſt ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their huſbands, which extended even to ſcourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded againſt by the laws of the country, or by particular ſtipulations in the marriage contract.

FUNERALS.] The Ruſſians entertain many fantaſtic notions with regard to the ſtate of departed ſouls. After the dead body is dreſſed, a prieſt is hired to pray for his ſoul, to purify it with incenſe, and to ſprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better ſort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many geſticulations of ſorrow, the prieſt produces a ticket, ſigned by their biſhop and another clergyman, as the deceaſed's paſſport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpſe, the company return to the deceaſed's houſe, where they drown their ſorrow in intoxication, which laſts, among the better

ſort, with few intervals, forty days. During that time a prieſt every day ſays prayers over the grave of the deceaſed; for though the Ruſſians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be aſſiſted by prayer, in his long journey to the place of his deſtination after this life.

PUNISHMENTS.] The Ruſſians are remarkable for the ſeverity and variety of their puniſhments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful inſenſibility. Peter the Great uſed to ſuſpend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on giobets, where they writhed themſelves to death, hundreds, nay thouſands at a time. The ſingle and double knout were lately inflicted upon ladies, as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating: but in the double knout the hands are bound behind the priſoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pully, lifts him from the ground, with the diſlocation of both his ſhoulders; and then his back is in a manner ſcarified by the executioner, with a hard thong cut from a wild aſs's ſkin. This puniſhment has been ſo often fatal, that a ſurgeon generally attends the patient to pronounce the moment it ſhould ceaſe. It is not always the number of the ſtrokes, but the method of applying them, which occaſions the death of the criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by ſtriking him upon the ribs; though perſons are ſometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred ſtrokes, moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out of the tongue are likewiſe practiſed in Ruſſia; and even the late empreſs Elizabeth, though ſhe prohibited capital puniſhments, was forced to give way to the ſuppoſed neceſſity of thoſe tortures.

According to the ſtrict letter of the law, there are no capital puniſhments in Ruſſia, except in the caſe of high treaſon: but when this matter is thoroughly inveſtigated, there is much leſs humanity in it than has been ſuppoſed. For there are many felons who die under the knout; and others die of fatigue in their journeys to Siberia, and from the hardſhips they ſuffer in the mines; ſo that there is reaſon to believe, that no fewer criminals ſuffer death in Ruſſia than in thoſe countries where capital puniſhments are authoriſed by the laws.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and forehead marked, are ſometimes ſentenced for life to the public works at Cronſtadt, Viſhnei-Volotchok, and other places: but the common practice is to ſend them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nerſhink. There are upon an average from 1600 to 2000 convicts at theſe mines. The greateſt part are confined in barracks, excepting thoſe who are married: the latter are permitted to build huts, near the mines, for themſelves and families. The prohibition of torture does honour to the humanity of the preſent empreſs.

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniencies introduced of late into Ruſſia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expenſe very trifling. Nothing ſtrikes either a reader or a ſtranger more than the facility with which the Ruſſians perform the longeſt and moſt uncomfortable journies. Like their Scandinavian neighbours already deſcribed, they travel in ſledges made of the bark of the linden tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein deer, when the ſnow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Ruſſia horſes draw their ſledges; and the ſledge-way, towards February, becomes ſo well beaten, that they erect a kind of coach upon the ſledges, in which they may lie at full length, and ſo travel night and day, wrapt up in good furs; thus they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, ſuch as that between Peterſburgh and Moſcow, in

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three days and nights. Her imperial majesty, in her journies, is drawn in a house which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniences, for four people, by 24 post-horses; and the house itself is fixed on a sledge.

DIFFERENT NATIONS SUBJECT TO RUSSIA.

As the present subjects of the Russian empire, in its most extensive sense, are the descendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, so we find among them a vast variety of character and manners; and the great reformations introduced of late years, as well as the discoveries made, render former accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Russian dominions, now live in fixed houses and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other subjects. Till lately they were not admitted into the Russian armies; but now they make excellent soldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both sides of the Wolga are inhabited by Tschermises and Morduars, a peaceable, industrious people. The Baskirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kasan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kalmucs occupy the rest of the tract to Astrachan, and the frontiers of the Usbecs; and in consideration of certain presents they receive from her imperial majesty, they serve in her armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The *Cossacs* who lately made a figure in the military history of Europe, were originally Polish peasants, and served in the Ukraine, as a militia against the Tartars. Being oppressed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them moved to the uncultivated banks of the Don or Tanaïs, and there established a colony. They were soon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Asoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in ashes. They next put themselves under the protection of the Russians, built Circaska, on an island in the Don; and their possessions, which consisted of thirty-nine towns on both sides that river, reached from Ribna to Asoph. They there lived in a country which they took care to cultivate; and they were so wedded to their original customs, that they were little better than nominal subjects to the czars, till the time of Peter the Great. They professed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and they occasionally served against the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The mien and character of the Tartars of Kasan, and of those derived from them, are very uniform, and may serve for the characteristic marks of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally straight and well made, have small faces, with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of a very moderate capacity. They are sober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarian women are of a wholesome complexion rather than handsome, and of a good constitution: from their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, modesty, and submission. The Tartars of Casan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to sobriety, and to a strict observance of the manners of their ancestors. They are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the smallest village has its chapel, school, priest, and school-master; though some of these priests and schoolmasters are not much skilled in the Arabic language. The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kasan, Tobolsk, and Astrachan, which

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are under the direction of the gagouns, or high-prieſts. It is not uncommon to find ſmall collections of hiſtorical anecdotes in manuſcript, in the huts of the boors: and their merchants, beſides what thoſe little libraries contain, are pretty extenſively acquainted with the hiſtory of their own people, and that of the circumjacent ſtates, with the antiquities of each. Such as chooſe to make a progreſs in theology, enter themſelves into the ſchools of Bougharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kaſan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exerciſe ſeveral trades, and have ſome manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely ſeen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterpriſing; but as they extend their connections by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of buſineſs, which their parſimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kaſan they make a trade of preparing what is called in England, Morocco-leather. The villages of theſe people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Moſt of them alſo contain tanners, ſhoe-makers, tailors, dyers, ſmiths, and carpenters.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villagers of Aſtrachan are perfectly ſimilar with thoſe of the Tartars of Kaſan. In the city of Aſtrachan they have a large magazine for goods, built of bricks, and ſeveral ſhops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Perſians, Indians, Bougharians: and their manufactories of Morocco leather, cotton, camelots, and ſilks, are in a very thriving ſtate.

The *Finns* are of Aſiatic origin, and have a cloſe reſemblance to the Laplanders, only they are more civiliſed, and better informed. They live in towns and villages, have ſchools and academies, and make ſome progreſs in the arts and ſciences. They profeſs the Lutheran faith, and uſe the Chriſtian æra in their chronology. They carry on commerce, and exerciſe moſt of the common trades. The boors are chiefly employed in agriculture, hunting, and fiſhing. They are great eaters, making five meals a day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. They enjoy a conſiderable degree of freedom, as the Ruſſian government has continued to them the enjoyment of the privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden.

The *Votiaks*, who are a Finniſh race, chiefly inhabit the provinces of Viatka, in the government of Kaſan. Some of the Votiaks are Chriſtians, but great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even theſe believe the doctrine of a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments.

The *Oſtiaks*, who are likewiſe a Finniſh race, are one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in ſubjection to Ruſſia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their deſcendants are ſtill reputed noble. Theſe people divide themſelves into different ſtocks or tribes: they chuſe their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. Theſe maintain peace and good order, and ſuperintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the uſe of letters, and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon as far as ten, but no farther, as is the caſe of other Finniſh nations.

The *Vogouls* are rather below the middle ſtature, have generally black hair, and a ſcanty beard. Their principal occupation is the chaſe, in which they diſcover much eagerneſs and addreſs; uſing indiſcriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the ſpear. They are alſo ſkilful in contriving traps, ſnares, and gins, and all the lures of game.

The *Tſchouwaſches* dwell along the two ſides of the Wolga, in the go-

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vernments of Niſchnei-Novogorod, Kaſan, and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but aſſemble in ſmall villages, and chooſe the foreſts for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpoſe ſcrew-barrel muſkets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that on the wedding night the bride is obliged to pull off her huſband's boots. A late writer ſays, "Among the Tſchou-"waſches the huſband is maſter of the houſe; he orders every thing him-"ſelf; and it is the duty of the wife to obey without reply; a cuſtom "calculated to prevent domeſtic broils. Accordingly quarrels are very "uncommon in the families of the Tſchouwaſches."

The *Kirguiſians* have a frank and prepoſſeſſing air, ſimilar to that which characteriſes the Tartars of Kaſan. They have a ſharp but not a fierce look, and ſmaller eyes than thoſe Tartars. They have good natural ſenſe, and are affable, and high-ſpirited; but fond of their eaſe, and voluptuous. They dwell always in portable huts, wandering about their deſerts in ſearch of paſturage for their flocks and herds, which conſtitutes their principal occupation. The decoration of their horſes employs them almoſt as much as that of their perſons; they having generally elegant ſaddles, handſome houſings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters; and they alſo ſmoke tobacco to exceſs. Men, women, and children, all ſmoke, and take ſnuff: they keep the latter in little horns faſtened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the ſame manner as the reſt of the people, and are diſtinguiſhed only by the numerous train that accompanies them in their cavalcades, and the quantity of huts which ſurround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children, and ſlaves.

The *Tunguſians* form one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. They are of a middle ſtature, well made, and of a good mein. Their ſight and hearing are of a degree of acuteneſs and delicacy that is almoſt incredible; but their organs of ſmelling and feeling are conſiderably more blunt than ours. They are acquainted with almoſt every tree and ſtone within the circuit of their uſual perambulation; and they can even deſcribe a courſe of ſome hundred miles by the configurations of the trees and ſtones they meet with, and can enable others to take the ſame route by ſuch deſcriptions. They alſo diſcover the tracks of the game by the compreſſion of the graſs or moſs. They alſo learn foreign languages with eaſe, are alert on horſeback, good hunters, and dexterous at the bow.

The *Kalmucs* are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the moſt part raw-boned and ſtout. Their viſage is ſo flat, that the ſkull of a Kalmuc may be eaſily known from others. They have thick lips, a ſmall noſe, and a ſhort chin, the complexion a reddiſh and yellowiſh brown. Their cloathing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chineſe. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their noſtrils. Their principal food is animals, tame and wild, and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of diſtemper or age, and let it ſtink ever ſo much; ſo that in every horde the fleſh market hath the appearance of a lay-ſtall of carrion; they eat likewiſe the roots and plants of their deſerts. They are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both ſexes ſmoke continually: during the ſummer they keep to the north, and in the winter to the ſouthern deſerts. They ſleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themſelves with the ſame.

The *Kamtſchadales* have a lively imagination, a ſtrong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fiſhing. The chaſe furniſhes them with ſables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fiſhing, and are well acquainted with the proper

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ſeaſons for it. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domeſtic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in ſmall carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtſchadalian equipage, dogs, harneſs, and all, coſts in that country 4l. 10s. or near twenty rubles. The Kamtſchadales believed the immortality of the ſoul, before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Chriſtian religion. They are ſuperſtitious to extravagance, and extremely ſingular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the *Siberians* were formerly ſo barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater puniſhment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by baniſhing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swediſh officers and ſoldiers introduced European uſages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. In this wide and forlorn region, that was ſo long unknown to Europe, ſome new mines have lately been diſcovered, which, upon their firſt opening, have yielded 45,000 pounds of fine ſilver, and which is ſaid to have been obtained with little difficulty or expenſe. But Kamtſchatka is now conſidered as the moſt horrid place of exile in the vaſt empire of Ruſſia, and here ſome of the greateſt criminals are ſent.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Ruſſia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are by far too numerous and complicated to be diſcuſſed here. It is ſufficient to ſay, that they deny the pope's ſupremacy; and though they diſclaim image-worſhip, they retain many idolatrous and ſuperſtitious cuſtoms. Their churches are full of pictures of ſaints, whom they conſider as mediators. They obſerve a number of faſts and lents, ſo that they live half the year very abſtemiouſly: an inſtitution which is extremely convenient for the ſoil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the ſacraments and Trinity. They oblige their biſhops, but not their prieſts, to celibacy. Peter the Great ſhowed his profound knowledge in government in nothing more than in the reformation of his church. He broke the dangerous powers of the patriarch, and the great clergy. He declared himſelf the head of the church, and preſerved the ſubordinations of metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops. Their prieſts have no fixed income, but depend for ſubſiſtence upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after eſtabliſhing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full poſſeſſion of all their idle ceremonies: nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic attempt was reſerved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal cataſtrophe. Before his days, an incredible number of both ſexes were ſhut up in convents: nor has it been found prudent entirely to aboliſh thoſe ſocieties. The abuſes of them, however, are in a great meaſure removed; for no male can become a monk till he is turned of thirty; and no female a nun, till ſhe is fifty; and even then not without permiſſion of their ſuperiors.

The conquered provinces, as already obſerved, retain the exerciſe of their own religion; but ſuch is the extent of the Ruſſian empire, that many of its ſubjects are Mahometans, and more of them no better than pagans, in Siberia and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa, is a flouriſhing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarepta; the beginning of the ſettlement was in 1765, with diſtinguiſhed privileges from the imperial court.

LANGUAGE.] The common language of Ruſſia is a mixture of the

Poliſh and Sclavonian; their prieſts, however, and the moſt learned clergy, make uſe of what is called modern Greek; and they who know that language in its purity, are at no loſs for underſtanding it in its corrupted ſtate. The Ruſſians have thirty-ſix letters, the forms of which have a ſtrong reſemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN] The Ruſſians have hitherto made but an inconſiderable figure in the republic of letters: but the great encouragement given by their ſovereigns of late, in the inſtitution of academies, and other literary boards, has produced ſufficient proofs that they are no way deficient as to intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them at their academical meetings, have been favourably received all over Europe; eſpecially thoſe that relate to aſtronomy, the mathematics, and natural philoſophy. The ſpeeches pronounced by the biſhop of Turer, the metropolian of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marſhal, at the opening of the commiſſion for a new code of laws, are elegant and claſſical; and the progreſs which learning has made in that empire ſince the beginning of this century, with the ſpecimens of literature publiſhed both at Peterſburgh and Moſcow, is an evidence that the Ruſſians are not unqualified to ſhine in the arts and ſciences. However, the efforts to civiliſe them did not begin with Peter the Great, but were much older. A ſmall glimmering, like the firſt day-break, was ſeen under czar Iwan, in the middle of the 16th century. This became more conſpicuous under Alexius Michaelowitz; but under Peter it burſt forth with the ſplendor of a riſing ſun, and hath continued ever ſince to aſcend towards its meridian.

UNIVERSITIES.] Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moſcow; one for claſſical learning and philoſophy, the ſecond for mathematics, and the third for navigation and aſtronomy. To theſe he added a diſpenſary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of ſome able German chemiſts and apothecaries, who furniſh medicines not only to the army but all over the kingdom. And within theſe few years, Mr. de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empreſs Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, has founded an univerſity in this city. The preſent empreſs has alſo founded an univerſity at Peterſburgh, and invited ſome of the moſt learned foreigners in every faculty, who are provided with good ſalaries; and alſo a military academy, where the young nobility and officers' ſons are taught the art of war. It ought alſo to be mentioned, to the honour of the ſame royal benefactreſs, that ſhe is actually employed in founding a number of ſchools for the education of the lower claſſes of her ſubjects, throughout the beſt inhabited parts of the empire; an inſtitution, which, if rightly executed, will entitle the great Catharine, as much as any of her predeceſſors, to the gratitude of the Ruſſian nation.

CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS. } Peterſburgh naturally takes the lead in this diviſion. It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga already mentioned, in latitude 60; but the reader may have a better idea of its ſituation, by being informed that it ſtands on both ſides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulf. In the year 1703, this city conſiſted of a few ſmall fiſhing huts, on a ſpot ſo wateriſh and ſwampy, that the ground was formed into nine iſlands; by which, according to Voltaire, its principal quarters are ſtill divided. Without entering into too minute a deſcription of this wonderful city, it is ſufficient to ſay that it extends about ſix miles every way, and contains every ſtructure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, commerce, and the like, that are to be found in the moſt celebrated cities in Europe. But

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there is a convent which deſerves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies are educated at the empreſs's expenſe; 200 of them of ſuperior rank, and the others, daughters of citizens and tradeſmen, who, after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements ſuitable to their conditions of life; and thoſe of the lower claſs are preſented with a ſum of money as a dowry if they marry, or to procure to themſelves a proper livelihood. Near to this convent is a foundling hoſpital, aſſiſtant to that noble one eſtabliſhed at Moſcow, and where the mother may come to be delivered privately; and then, after the utmoſt attention to her, ſhe leaves the child to the ſtate, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

As Peterſburgh is the emporium of Ruſſia, the number of foreign ſhips trading to it in the ſummer-time is ſurpriſing. In winter 3000 one-horſe ſledges are employed for paſſengers in the ſtreets. It is ſuppoſed, that there are 400,000 inhabitants in this city; and it is ornamented with thirty-five great churches; for in it almoſt every ſect of the Chriſtian religion is tolerated. It alſo contains five palaces, ſome of which are ſuperb, particularly that which is called the New Summer Palace, near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. This magnificent city is defended on that ſide next the ſea by the fortreſs of Cronſtadt, which, conſidering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the gulf of Finland, is ſufficient to guard it on that ſide from the attempts of any enemy. Peterſburg is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conqueſts from the Swedes. All the neighbourhood of this city is covered with country-houſes and gardens.

The city of Moſcow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and it ſtill continues conſiderable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It ſtands, as has been already mentioned, on the river from whence it takes its name, in lat. 55-45, and about 1414 miles north-eaſt of London; and though its ſtreets are not regular, it preſents a very picturesque appearance; for it contains ſuch a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and ſtreams, that it ſeems rather to be a cultivated country, than a city. The ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not atteſted by the moſt unqueſtionable authors: but we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated ſtate of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater luſtre in a traveller's eyes. Neither Voltaire nor Buſching gives us any ſatisfactory account of this capital; and little credit is to be given to the authors who divide it into regular quarters, and each quarter inhabited by a different order or profeſſion. Buſching ſpeaks of it as the largeſt city in Europe: but that can be only meant as to the ground it ſtands on, computed to be 16 miles in circumference. It is generally agreed, that Moſcow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three palaces or ſquares. Buſching makes the merchants' exchange to contain about 6000 fine ſhops, which diſplay a vaſt parade of commerce, eſpecially to and from China. No city diſplays a greater contraſt than Moſcow, of magnificence and meanneſs in building. The houſes of the inhabitants in general are miſerable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are ſpacious and lofty. The Kremlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures in the world: it ſtands in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palace, pleaſure-houſe, and ſtables, a victualling-houſe, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four pariſh-churches, the arſenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremlin have beautiful ſpires, moſt of them gilt, or cover-

ed with ſilver; the architecture is in the Gothic taſte; but the inſides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the ſaints are decorated with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper double gilt, and contains a ſilver branch with 48 lights, ſaid to weigh 2800 pounds. A volume would ſcarcely ſuffice to recount the other particulars of the magnificence of this city. Its ſumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, and chancery, are noble ſtructures. The public is not unacquainted with the barbarous anecdote, that the czar John Baſilides ordered the architect of the church of Jeruſalem to be deprived of his eye-ſight, that he might never contrive its equal. The ſtory is improbable, and might take its riſe from the arbitrary diſpoſition of that great prince. I ſhall have occaſion hereafter to mention the great bell of Moſcow; where the inhabitants are ſo diſtractedly fond of bells, that they are always tinkling in every quarter. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the virgin Mary, in the Kremlin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what is ſeen at the famous Holy Houſe of Loretto in Italy. Mr. Voltaire ſays, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moſcow at the time he was building Peterſburgh: for he cauſed it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

The foundling hoſpital at Moſcow is an excellent inſtitution, and appears to be under very judicious regulations, It was founded by the preſent empreſs, and it ſupported by voluntary contributions, legacies, and other charitable endowments. It is an immenſe pile of building, of a quadrangular ſhape, and contains 3000 foundlings: when the eſtabliſhment is completed, it is intended to contain 8000. They are taken great care of; and at the age of fourteen they have the liberty of chooſing any particular branch of trade; and for this purpoſe there are different ſpecies of manufactures eſtabliſhed in the hoſpital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeſhip, or about the age of twenty, they are allowed the liberty of ſetting up for themſelves: a ſum of money is beſtowed upon each foundling for that purpoſe, and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Ruſſian empire. This is a very conſiderable privilege in Ruſſia, where the peaſants are ſlaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permiſſion of their maſters.

Nothing can be ſaid with certainty as to the population of Moſcow. When lord Carliſle was the Engliſh ambaſſador there, in the reign of Charles II. this city was 12 miles in compaſs, and the number of houſes were computed at 40,000. Voltaire ſays, that when he wrote, Moſcow was twenty miles in circumference, and that its inhabitants amounted to 500,000. Mr. Coxe confirms the account of the circumference of this city, but thinks the account of its population much exaggerated: according to an account which was given to him by an Engliſh gentleman, which he received from a lieutenant of the police, and which he ſays may be relied on, Moſcow contains within the ramparts 250,000 ſouls, and in the adjacent villages 50,000.

CURIOSITIES.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Ruſſia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civiliſed nations. She can, however, produce many ſtupendous monuments of the public ſpirit of her ſovereigns; particularly her canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia is full of old ſepulchres of an unknown nation, whoſe inſtruments and arms were all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural hiſtory at Peterſburgh, is a rhinoceros, dug up on the banks of the river Valui, with his ſkin, and the hair upon it, perfect. I have already hinted

hinted at the paſſion the Ruſſians have for bell-ringing; and we are told that the great bell of Moſcow, the largeſt in the world, weighs, according to Mr. Coxe, "432,000 pounds, and which exceeds in bigneſs every bell "in the known world. Its ſize is ſo enormous, that I could ſcarcely have "given credit to the account of its magnitude, if I had not examined it "myſelf, and aſcertained its dimenſions with great exactneſs. Its height "is nineteen feet, its circumference at the bottom twenty-one yards ele-"ven inches, its greateſt thickneſs twenty-three inches." It was caſt in the reign of the empreſs Anne: but the beam on which it hung, being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broken out of it; ſo that it lately lay in a manner uſeleſs. Mr. Bruce in his late Memoirs mentions a bell at Moſcow founded in czar Boris's time, 19 feet high, 23 in diameter, and two in thickneſs, that weighed 336,000 pounds. The building of Peteriburgh, and raiſing it on a ſudden from a few fiſhing huts to be a popu-ious and rich city, is perhaps a curioſity hardly to be paralleled ſince the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The ſame may be ſaid of the fortreſs of Cronſtadt, in the neighbourhood of Peterſburgh, which is almoſt impregnable. This fortreſs and city employed for ſome years 300,000 men in laying its foundation, and driving piles night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The whole plan, with a very little aſſiſtance from ſome German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raiſed to his people, at the time when they could hardly be ſaid to have poſſeſſed a ſhip in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he often wrought in perſon in all thoſe amazing works, with the ſame aſſiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

COMMERCE, AND MARITIME FORCE. } In treating of the Ruſſian commerce, former accounts are of little ſervice at this time, becauſe of its great improvements and variations. By the beſt and ſureſt information, the annual exports of Ruſſia at preſent amount to about £. 2,400,000, and her imports do not exceed £. 1,600,000; ſo that the balance of trade is yearly £. 800,000 ſterling in her favour *.

Ruſſia's productions and exports, in general, are many, and very valuable, viz. furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, ſail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow, iſinglaſs, linſeed-oil, pot-aſh, ſoap, feathers, train-oil, hog's briſtles, muſk, rhubarb, and other drugs, timber, and alſo raw ſilk from China and Perſia.

Her foreign commerce is much increaſed ſince her conqueſts from Sweden, eſpecially of Livonia and Ingria, and ſince the eſtabliſhing of her new emporium of Peterſburgh, whereby her naval intercourſe with Europe is made much more ſhort and eaſy. The Ukraine may be called the granary of the empire: the beſt corn, hemp, flax, honey, and wax, come from this fertile province, and 10,000 head of horned cattle are annually ſent from its paſtures into Sileſia and Saxony.

Ruſſia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence, tea, ſilk, cotton, gold, &c. To Bochary, near the river Oxus in Tartary, Ruſſia ſends her own merchandiſe, in return for India ſilks, curled lamb-ſkins, and ready money; and alſo to the annual fair at Samarcand: ſhe likewiſe trades to Perſia by Aſtracan, acroſs the Caſpian ſea, for raw and wrought ſilk. The empreſs, in 1784, iſſued an edict, permitting all foreigners to carry on a free trade by ſea and land with the ſeveral countries bordering on the Euxine, which

* Coxe's Travels, vol. ii. p. 247.

have been lately annexed to the empire. The ſame privileges, religious and civil, are allowed to them in the ports of Cherſon, Sebaſtopolis, and Theodoſia (formerly Caffa) in the province of Taurica, as in Peterſburgh.

Before the time of Peter the Great, Archangel, which lies upon the White Sea, was the only port of naval communication which Ruſſia had with the reſt of Europe; but it was ſubject to a long and tempeſtuous voyage. They have now 13 ports, Archangel, Peterſburgh, Riga, Revel, Perneau, Narva, Wibourg, Frederickſham, Aſtracan, and Kola, and the three opened in their new conqueſts. This town is about three Engliſh miles in length, and one in breadth, built all of wood, excepting the exchange, which is of ſtone. Notwithſtanding the decreaſe of the trade of Archangel by building Peterſburgh, it ſtill exports a conſiderable quantity of merchandiſe. Their maſts and timber for the dock-yards come chiefly from the foreſts of Kaſan, that border on the province of Aſtracan.

The preſent ſtate of their navy, according to a late liſt, is 36 men of war of the line, 25 frigates, 101 galleys, 10 prames from 50 to 24 guns, two bombs, ſeven pinks, &c. 15,000 ſailors are kept in conſtant pay and ſervice, either on board the ſhips, or in the dock-yards. The harbour is at Cronſtadt, ſeven leagues from Peterſburgh, defended on one ſide by a fort of four baſtions, and on the other by a battery of 100 pieces of cannon. The canal and large baſon will contain near 600 ſail of ſhips.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND DISTINCTION OF RANK. } The ſovereign of the Ruſſian empire is abſolute and deſpotic in the fulleſt extent of thoſe terms, and maſter of the lives and properties of all his ſubjects, who, though they are of the firſt nobility, or have been highly inſtrumental in promoting the welfare of the ſtate, may, notwithſtanding, for the moſt trifling offence, or even for no offence at all, be ſeized upon and ſent to Siberia, or made to drudge for life upon the public works, and have all their goods confiſcated, whenever the ſovereign or his miniſters ſhall think proper. Perſons of any rank may be baniſhed into Siberia, for the ſlighteſt political intrigue; and their poſſeſſions being confiſcated, a whole family may at once be ruined by the inſinuations of an artful courtier. The ſecret court of chancery, which was a tribunal compoſed of a few miniſters choſen by the ſovereign, had the lives and fortunes of all families at their mercy. But this court was ſuppreſſed by Peter III.

The ſyſtem of civil laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Ruſſia is very imperfect, and in many inſtances barbarous and unjuſt; being an aſſemblage of laws and regulations drawn from moſt of the ſtates of Europe, ill digeſted, and in many reſpects not at all adapted to the genius of the Ruſſian nation. But the preſent empreſs has made ſome attempts to reform the laws, and put them upon a better footing. The courts of juſtice were in general very corrupt, and thoſe by whom it was adminiſtered extremely ignorant; but the empreſs hath lately made ſome judicious regulations, and fixed a certain ſalary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients, and thus the poor were without hope or remedy. It is hoped that the new code of laws for which ſhe hath given inſtructions, will ſoon be produced, to increaſe the people's liberty, ſecurity, and felicity.

The diſtinctions of rank form a conſiderable part of the Ruſſian conſtitution. The late empreſſes took the title of Autocratrix, which implies that they owned their dignity to no earthly power. Their ancient nobility were divided into knezes or knazes, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were ſovereigns upon their own eſtates, till they were reduced by the czars:

but

but they ſtill retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Thoſe titles, however, ſo often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the preſent and late empreſſes have introduced among their ſubjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other diſtinctions of nobility that are common to the reſt of Europe.

REVENUE AND EXPENSES.] Nothing certain can be ſaid concerning the revenues of this mighty empire; but they are, undoubtedly, at preſent, far ſuperior to what they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vaſt exertions for promoting induſtry, made by his ſucceſſors, eſpecially her preſent imperial majeſty, muſt have greatly added to their income, which can ſcarcely be reckoned at leſs than 30,000,000 of rubles, or nearly ſix millions ſterling annually; thus computed:

	Rubles.
Capitation tax, - - -	8,500,000
Other taxes and duties, - -	7,000,000
Her own eſtates, with other dominions taken from the clergy,	6,000,000
Produce of the mines, - -	1,500,000
Monopoly of diſtilled liquors, -	4,000,000
Monopoly of ſalt, - - -	1,800,000
	28,800,000.

The deficiency of the ſum total may be eaſily made up by the profit ariſing from ſtamp paper, patents, poſt-office, and other articles omitted in the general calculation, beſides *one* per cent. every Ruſſian merchant is to pay out of his yearly capital.

When the reader conſiders this ſum relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great-Britain, he will find it a very conſiderable revenue. That it is ſo, appears from the vaſt armies maintained and paid by the late and preſent empreſs, in Germany, Poland, and elſewhere, when no part of the money returned to Ruſſia; nor do we find that they received any conſiderable ſubſidy from the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. Mr. Voltaire ſays that, in 1733, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the ſum total amounted to thirteen millions of rubles (each ruble amounting to 4s. 6d. ſterling). This income was at that time ſufficient to maintain 339,500 men, employed in the land and ſea ſervice. The other expenſes, beſide the payment of the army and navy of her preſent majeſty, the number and diſcipline of which are at leaſt equal to thoſe of her greateſt predeceſſors, are very conſiderable. Her court is elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants ſplendid; and the encouragement ſhe gives to learning, the improvement of the arts, and uſeful diſcoveries, coſts her vaſt ſums, excluſive of her ordinary expenſes of ſtate.

Some of the Ruſſian revenues ariſe from monopolies, which are often neceſſary in the infancy of commerce. The moſt hazardous enterpriſe undertaken by Peter the Great, was his imitating the conduct of Henry VIII. of England, in ſeizing the revenues of the church. He found perhaps, that policy and neceſſity required that the greateſt part of them ſhould be reſtored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his exceſſive power. The clergy are taxed in Ruſſia; but the pecuniary revenues of the crown ariſe from taxes upon eſtates, bagnios, bees, mills, fiſheries, and other particulars.

The Ruſſian armies are raiſed at little or no expenſe, and, while in

their own country, ſubſiſt chiefly on proviſions furniſhed them by the country people according to their internal valuation. The pay of a ſoldier ſcarcely amounts to 30 ſhillings yearly; in garriſon he receives only five rubles yearly. The pay of a ſailor and a gunner is a ruble a month, and they are found with proviſions when a-ſhore.

ORDERS.] The order of St. *Andrew*, inſtituted by Peter the Great, in 1698, to animate his nobles and officers in the wars againſt the Turks. He choſe St. Andrew for his patron, becauſe by tradition he was the founder of Chriſtianity in the country. The knights are perſons of the firſt rank in the empire. The order of St. *Alexander Newſki* was alſo inſtituted by Peter the Great, and confirmed by the empreſs Catharine I. in the year 1725. The order of St. *Catharine* was inſtituted by Peter the Great, in honour of his empreſs, for her aſſiſtance on the banks of the Pruth. The order of St. *George*, inſtituted by the preſent empreſs Catharine II. in favour of the military officers in her ſervice. The order of St. *Wolodemir* was inſtituted about October 3d, 1782, by the empreſs, in favour of thoſe who ſerve her in a civil capacity. The order of St. *Anne* of Holſtein, in memory of Anne, daughter of Peter the Great.

HISTORY.] It is evident both from ancient hiſtory and modern diſcoveries, that ſome of the moſt neglected parts of the Ruſſian empire at preſent, were formerly rich and populous. The reader who throws his eyes on a general map of Europe and Aſia, may ſee the advantages of their ſituation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richeſt provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In later times, the Aſiatic part of Ruſſia bordered with Samarcand in Tartary, once the capital, under Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and powerful empire than any mentioned in hiſtory; and nothing is more certain than that the conqueſt of Ruſſia was among the laſt attempts made by the former of thoſe princes. The chronicles of this empire reach no higher than the ninth century, but they have vented a tradition, that Kiovia and Novogorod were founded by Kii in the year 430. This Kii is by ſome conſidered as an ancient prince, while others mention him as a ſimple boatman, who uſed to tranſport goods and paſſengers acroſs the Neiper. For a long time the chief or ruler had the title of grand duke of Kiow. We cannot, with the ſmalleſt degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the hiſtory of Ruſſia, higher than the introduction of Chriſtianity, which happened about the 10th century; when the princeſs of this country, called Olba, is ſaid to have been baptiſed at Conſtantinople, and refuſed the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimiſces, in marriage. This accounts for the Ruſſians adopting the Greek religion, and part of the alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, ſent prieſts to baptiſe the Ruſſians, who were for ſome time ſubject to the ſee of Conſtantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards reſigned all their authority over the Ruſſian church; and its biſhops erected themſelves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that, till the year 1450, the princes of Ruſſia were but very little conſidered, being chiefly ſubjected by the Tartars. It was about this time that John or Iwan Baſilides conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod, from whom he is ſaid to have carried 300 cart-loads of gold and ſilver. His proſperous reign of 40 years gave a new aſpect to Ruſſia.

His grandſon, the famous John Baſilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, ſubdued the kingdoms of Kaſan and Aſtracan Tartary, in Aſia, and annexed them to the Ruſſian dominions. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of ſome of his fineſt

provinces,

provinces, particularly Livonia and Eſthonia, to throw themſelves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II. the ſovereign of Ruſſia took the title of Welike Knez, "great prince," great lord, or great chief; which the Chriſtian nations afterwards rendered by that of great-duke. The title of Tzar, or, as we call it, Czar, (an expreſſion which, in the Sclavonian language, ſignifies king) was added to that of the Ruſſian ſovereigns. Upon the death of John Baſilowitz, the Ruſſian ſucceſſion was filled by a ſet of weak, cruel princes; and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow, according to Voltaire, whoſe information I prefer, as it ſeems to be the moſt authentic, aſſaſſinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and uſurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince who had eſcaped from his murderers: and with the aſſiſtance of the Poles, and a conſiderable party (which every tyrant has againſt him), he drove out the uſurper, and ſeized the crown himſelf. The impoſture was diſcovered as ſoon as he came to the ſovereignty, becauſe the people were not pleaſed with him; and he was murdered. Three other falſe Demetrius's ſtarted up one after another.

Theſe impoſtures prove the deſpicable ſtate of ignorance in which the Ruſſians were immerged. The country became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes, but was at length delivered by the good ſenſe of the boyars, impelled by their deſpair, ſo late as the year 1613. The independency of Ruſſia was then on the point of being extinguiſhed. Uladiſlaus, ſon of Sigiſmund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was ſuch, that it produced a general rebellion of the Ruſſians, who drove the Poles out of Moſcow, where they had for ſome time defended themſelves with unexampled courage. Philaretes, archbiſhop of Roſtow, whoſe wife was deſcended from the ancient ſovereigns of Ruſſia, had been ſent ambaſſador to Poland by Demetrius one of the Ruſſian tyrants, and there was detained priſoner under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled againſt Uladiſlaus. The boyars met in a body; and ſuch was their veneration for Philaretes, and his wife, whom the tyrant had ſhut up in a nunnery, that they elected their ſon Michael Fædorowitz, of the houſe of Romanoff, a youth of 15 years of age, to be their ſovereign. The father being exchanged for ſome Poliſh priſoners, returned to Ruſſia, and being created patriarch by his ſon, he reigned in the young man's right with great prudence and ſucceſs. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladiſlaus upon the throne, and likewiſe the claim of a brother of Guſtavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Ruſſia occaſioned a war between thoſe two people, which gave Michael a kind of breathing time; and he made uſe of it for the benefit of his ſubjects. He reigned thirty-three years; and by his wiſdom, and the mildneſs of his character, he reſtored eaſe and tranquillity to his ſubjects. He encouraged them to induſtry, and gave them the example of very commendable behaviour in his own perſon. Before we take leave of Michael, it may be proper to mention the mode of the czar's nuptials, which could not be introduced into the miſcellaneous cuſtoms of their ſubjects, and which are as follow. His Czariſh majeſty's intention to marry being known, the moſt celebrated beauties of his dominions were ſent for to court, and there entertained. They were viſited by the czar, and the moſt magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by ſending her magnificent jewels and a wedding robe. The reſt of the candidates were then diſmiſſed to their ſeveral homes, with ſuitable preſents. The name of the lady's father who pleaſed Michael, was Streſchnen;

Streſchnen; and he was ploughing his own farm when it was announced to him that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexius ſucceeded his father Michael, and was married in the ſame manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Somolenſko, Kiow, and the Ukraine, but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. When the grand ſignor, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded ſome poſſeſſions from him in the Ukraine, his anſwer was, "that he ſcorned to ſubmit to a Mahometan dog, and that his ſcymitar was as good as the grand ſignor's ſabre." He promoted agriculture; introduced into his empire arts and ſciences, of which he was himſelf a lover; publiſhed a code of laws, ſome of which are ſtill uſed in the adminiſtration of juſtice; and greatly improved his army by mending its diſcipline. This he effected chiefly by the help of ſtrangers, moſt of whom were Scotch. He ſubdued a chief of the Don Coſſacs, named Stenko Raſin, who endeavoured to make himſelf king of Aſtracan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, were hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and ſilk manufactures into his dominions; and inſtead of putting to death or enſlaving his Lithuanian, Poliſh and Tartar priſoners, he ſent them to people the banks of the Wolga and the Kama. Theodore ſucceeded his father Alexius in 1667. He reigned ſeven years, and having on his death-bed called his boyars around him, in the preſence of his brother and ſiſter, Iwan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards ſo celebrated, and who was his half brother, he ſaid to them, "Hear my laſt ſentiments; "they are dictated by my love for the ſtate, and by my affection for my "people. The bodily infirmities of Iwan neceſſarily muſt affect his men-"tal faculties; he is incapable of ruling ſuch a dominion as that of Ruſ-"ſia; he cannot take it amiſs if I recommend to you to ſet him aſide, "and let your approbation fall on Peter, who to a robuſt conſtitution "joins great ſtrength of mind, and marks of a ſuperior underſtanding." But this wiſe deſtination extremely offended the princeſs Sophia, who was a woman of great ambition, and who, after the death of Theodore, found means to excite a horrible ſedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the ſtanding army of Ruſſia. Their exceſſes ſurpaſſed all deſcription; but Sophia, by her management, replaced her brother Iwan in his birthright, and exerciſed the government herſelf with the greateſt ſeverity and inhumanity; for all the Ruſſian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom ſhe ſuppoſed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The inſtances given by Voltaire of her barbarous adminiſtration, are ſhocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes, Iwan and Peter, were declared joint ſovereigns, and their ſiſter, their aſſociate co-regent. Her adminiſtration was bloody and tumultuous: nor durſt ſhe venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other inſurgents. Finding this debility in her own perſon, ſhe intended to have married prince Baſil Galitzin, who is ſaid to have been a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and ſome learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia, he marched into Crim Tartary; but Peter now was about 17 years of age, and aſſerted his right to the throne. Sophia and Iwan were then at Moſcow; and upon Peter's publiſhing aloud that a conſpiracy had been formed by his ſiſter to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or deſtroyed Sophia's party, and forced herſelf to retire to a monaſtery. Galitzin's life was ſpared; but his great eſtate was confiſcated, and the following curious ſentence was pronounced as his puniſhment, "Thou art commanded by the moſt clement "czar to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue "the remainder of thy days. His majeſty, out of his extreme goodneſs, "allows thee three pence per day for thy ſubſiſtence." This left Peter with

no

no other competitor, in the year 1689, than the mild and eaſy Iwan; and upon his death, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his own future ſecurity, by the execution of above 3000 Strelitzes.

Peter, though he had been but very indifferently educated, through the jealouſy of his ſiſter, aſſociated himſelf with the Germans and Dutch; with the former for the ſake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter for their ſkill in navigation, which he practiſed himſelf. His inclination for the arts was encouraged by his favorite Le Fort, a Piedmonteſe; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, diſciplined the czar's own regiment, conſiſting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raiſed a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exerciſes of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the inſolence of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He ſet out as an attendant upon his own ambaſſadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous, and too well known, to be inſerted here. By working as a common ſhip-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himſelf in ſhip-building and navigation; and through the excellent diſcipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or cruſhed all civil inſurrections, but all his enemies on this ſide of Aſia; and at laſt he even exterminated, excepting two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Strelitzes. He roſe gradually through every rank and ſervice both by ſea and land; and the many defeats which he received, eſpecially that from Charles XII. at Narva, ſeemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he loſt rendered him a conqueror upon the whole, by adding experience to his courage; and the generous friendſhip he ſhowed to Auguſtus king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank diſtinct from merit; and he at laſt married Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swediſh ſoldier; becauſe, after a long cohabitation, he found her poſſeſſed of a ſoul formed to execute his plans, and to aſſiſt his councils. Catharine was ſo much a ſtranger to her own country, that her huſband afterwards diſcovered her brother, who ſerved as a common ſoldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which ſucceeded one another after the battle of Pultowa in 1709, with Charles XII. were not the chief glory of Peter's reign. He applied himſelf with equal aſſiduity, as already mentioned, to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and ſciences; and upon the whole, he made ſuch acquiſitions of dominion, even in Europe itſelf, that he may be ſaid at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the moſt powerful prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his ſubjects.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldeſt ſon, who was called the czarowitz, and who, marrying without his conſent, entered, as his father alleged, into ſome dangerous practices againſt his perſon and government; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a ſovereign ſo deſpotic as Peter was, we can ſay nothing as to the juſtice of the charge. It was undoubtedly his will that the young prince ſhould be found guilty; and the very reading of the ſentence appears to have been fatal to him. It is ſaid, that, as ſoon as ſentence of death was pronounced upon the prince, wherein were the following words, "The divine, eccleſiaſtical, civil, and "military law, condemns to death, without mercy, all thoſe whoſe attempts "againſt their father and their ſovereign are manifeſt," he fell into the moſt violent convulſions, from which it was with great difficulty that he regained a little

a little interval of ſenſe, during which he deſired his father would come to ſee him, when he aſked his pardon and ſoon after died. After this event, Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the ſame magnificent ceremonies as if ſhe had been a Greek empreſs, and to be recogniſed as his ſucceſſor; which ſhe accordingly was, and mounted the Ruſſian throne upon the deceaſe of her huſband. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was ſucceeded by Peter II. a minor, ſon to the czarowitz. Many domeſtic revolutions happened in Ruſſia during the ſhort reign of this prince; but none were more remarkable than the diſgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns. and eſteemed the richeſt ſubject in Europe. Peter died of the ſmall pox, in 1730.

Notwithſtanding the deſpotiſm of Peter and his wife, the Ruſſian ſenate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to ſet aſide the order of ſucceſſion which they had eſtabliſhed. The male iſſue of Peter was now extinguiſhed: and the duke of Holſtein, ſon to the eldeſt daughter, was, by the deſtination of the late empreſs, entitled to the crown: but the Ruſſians, for political reaſons, filled their throne with Anne, ducheſs of Courland, ſecond daughter to Iwan, Peter's eldeſt brother, though her eldeſt ſiſter the ducheſs of Mecklenburgh was alive. Her reign was extremely proſperous; and though ſhe accepted the throne under limitations that ſome thought derogatory to her dignity, yet ſhe broke them all, aſſerted the prerogative of her anceſtors, and puniſhed the aſpiring Dologorucki family, who had impoſed upon her limitations, with a view, as it is ſaid, that they themſelves might govern. She raiſed her favourite, Biron, to the duchy of Courland: and ſhe was obliged to give way to many ſevere executions on his account. Upon her death in 1740, John, the ſon of her niece the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, by Anthony Ulric of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, was, by her will, entitled to the ſucceſſion; but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be adminiſtrator of the empire during his nonage. This deſtination was diſagreeable to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh and her huſband, and unpopular among the Ruſſians. Count Munich was employed by the princeſs of Mecklenburgh to arreſt Biron, who was tried, and condemned to die, but was ſent in exile to Siberia.

The adminiſtration of the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburgh and her huſband was, upon many accounts, but particularly that of her German connections, diſagreeable, not only to the Ruſſians, but to other powers of Europe: and notwithſtanding a proſperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princeſs Elizabeth, daughter, by Catharine, to Peter the Great, formed ſuch a party, that in one night's time ſhe was declared and proclaimed empreſs of the Ruſſias; and the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, her huſband, and ſon, were made priſoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be ſaid to have been more glorious than that of any of her predeceſſors, her father excepted. She aboliſhed capital puniſhments; and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation, till her time unknown in Ruſſia: but at the ſame time ſhe puniſhed counts Munich and Oſterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late adminiſtration, with exile. She made peace with Sweden, and ſettled, as we have already ſeen, the ſucceſſion to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the moſt equitable foundation. Having glorioufly finiſhed a war, which had been ſtirred up againſt her, with Sweden, ſhe replaced the natural order of ſucceſſion in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holſtein-Gottorp, who was deſcended from her eldeſt ſiſter, to be her heir. She gave him the title of grand-duke of Ruſſia; and ſoon after her acceſſion to the throne, ſhe

called

called him to her court, where he renounced the ſucceſſion of the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princeſs of Anhalt-Zerbſt, by whom he had a ſon, who is now heir to the Ruſſian empire.

Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expenſe of a large ſubſidy; but many political, and ſome private reaſons, it is ſaid, determined her to take part with the houſe of Auſtria againſt the king of Pruſſia in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the ſucceſs of the war, which was in diſfavour of Pruſſia, notwithſtanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conqueſt was ſuch as portended the entire deſtruction of the Pruſſian power, which was, perhaps, ſaved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was ſucceeded by Peter III. grand prince of Ruſſia, and duke of Holſtein, a prince whoſe conduct has been variouſly repreſented. He mounted the throne poſſeſſed of an enthuſiaſtic admiration of his Pruſſian majeſty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whoſe principles and practices he ſeems to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. He might have ſurmounted the effects even of thoſe peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Ruſſia; but is is ſaid that he aimed at reformation in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durſt not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. It is alſo alleged, that he had formed a reſolution to deſtroy both the empreſs and her ſon, though they had been declared heirs to the imperial throne by the ſame authority which had placed the crown upon his head: and even the advocates of Peter the Third acknowledge that he had reſolved to ſhut up his wife and ſon in a convent, to place his miſtreſs upon the throne, and to change the order of ſucceſſion. However, the execution of his deſigns was prevented by an almoſt general conſpiracy being formed againſt him, in which the empreſs took a very active part; and this unfortunate prince ſcarcely knew an interval between the loſs of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived while under an ignominious confinement, in July 1762. That his conduct with regard to Pruſſia was not the ſole cauſe of his depoſition, ſeems pretty evident from the meaſures of his ſucceſſor, who was his own wife, and now reigns by the title of Catharine II. That princeſs, with regard to Pruſſia, trod in her huſband's ſteps, and now follows the plan he chalked out. The moſt remarkable domeſtic occurrence of her reign hitherto, is the death of prince Iwan, ſon to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh.

This young prince, as ſoon as he came into the world, was deſigned, though unjuſtly and illegally, to wear the imperial crown of Ruſſia, after the death of his great aunt, the empreſs Anna Iwannowna; but on the advancement of the empreſs Elizabeth, he was condemned to lead an obſcure life in the caſtle of Schluſſelburg, under a ſtrong guard, who had particular orders, that if any perſon, or any armed force, was employed in attempting to deliver him, they ſhould kill him immediately. He lived quietly in his priſon, when the empreſs Catharine II. mounted the throne; and as the revolution which depoſed her huſband Peter III. had occaſioned a ſtrong ferment in the minds of the people, Catharine was apprehenſive that ſome attempts might be made in favour of Iwan; ſhe therefore doubled the guards of this unhappy prince, and particularly intruſted him to the care of two officers, who were devoted to her intereſt. However, a lieutenant of infantry, who was born in the Ukraine, undertook, or at leaſt pretended ſo, to deliver Iwan by force of arms, from the fortreſs of Schluſſelburg; and under this pretence the prince was put to death. The

lieutenant

lieutenant who attempted to deliver him was arreſted, and afterwards beheaded: but notwithſtanding this, it has been repreſented that he was a mere tool of the court, though he ſuffered for executing the inſtructions that he had received.

While this event excited the attention of the Ruſſian nation, the flames of civil war broke out with great violence in Poland; which has generally been the caſe when the throne was vacant. And as the internal tranquillity of Poland is a capital object with Ruſſia, the empreſs Catharine ſent a body of troops into Poland, and by her influence count Poniatowſki was raiſed to the throne. She alſo interpoſed, in order to ſecure the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and Proteſtant ſubjects of Poland. But the umbrage which her imperial majeſty's armies gave to the Roman catholic Poles, by their reſidence in Poland, increaſed the rage of civil war in that country, and produced confederacies againſt all that had been done during the late election; which rendered Poland a ſcene of blood and confuſion. The conduct of Ruſſia with regard to Poland gave ſo much offence to the Ottoman court, that the grand ſignor ſent Obreſkoff, the Ruſſian miniſter, to the priſon of the ſeven towers, declared war againſt Ruſſia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Ruſſia and Poland. Hoſtilities ſoon commenced between theſe rival and mighty empires. In the months of February and March 1769, Crim Gueray, khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of Tartars, ſupported by 10,000 ſpahis, having broken the Ruſſian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off ſome thouſand families captive. In April following, the grand vizir, at the head of a great army, began his march from Conſtantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube. In the mean time prince Galitzin, who commanded the Ruſſian army on the banks of the Neiſter, thought this a proper time to attempt ſomething deciſive, before the arrival of the great Turkiſh force in that quarter. Having accordingly croſſed the Neiſter with his whole army, he advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in ſight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pacha, and entrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince having made the neceſſary diſpoſitions, attacked the Turks in their entrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and notwithſtanding an obſtinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortreſs, at length beat them out of their trenches. The Turks endeavoured to cover their retreat, by detaching a large body of cavalry to attack the right wing of the Ruſſian army; but they had ſuch a warm reception from the artillery, that they ſoon retired in great diſorder. General Stoffeln and prince Dolgorucki were then ordered to purſue the fugitives, at the head of eight battalions; which they did ſo effectually, that they followed them into the ſuburbs, of Choczim, and their purſuit was at length only ſtopped by the paliſadoes of the fortreſs.

On the 13th of July, a very obſtinate battle was fought between a conſiderable Turkiſh army, and the Ruſſians under prince Galitzin, in the neighbourhood of Choczim, in which the Turks were defeated. The Ruſſians immediately inveſted Choczim; but the garriſon being numerous, made frequent ſallies, and received great reinforcements from the grand vizir's camp, who was now conſiderably advanced on this ſide of the Danube. Several actions enſued; and prince Galitzin was at length obliged to retreat from Choczim, and again to repaſs the Neiſter. It was computed that the ſiege of Choczim, and the actions conſequent to it, coſt the Ruſſians above 20,000 men.

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In the management of this war, the grand vizir had acted with a degree of prudence, which, it has been thought, would have proved fatal to the designs of the Russians, if the same conduct had been afterwards pursued. But the army of the vizir was extremely licentious, and his caution gave offence to the Janizaries; so that, in consequence of their clamours, and the weakness of the councils that prevailed in the seraglio, he at length became a sacrifice, and Moldovani Ali Pacha, a man of more courage than conduct, was appointed his successor.

During these transactions, general Romanzow committed great devastations upon the Turks in the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt several towns and villages, defeated a Turkish detachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars also committed great ravages in Poland, where they almost totally destroyed the palatinate of Bracklaw, besides doing much mischief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Russian army was again posted on the banks of the Neister, and effectually defended the passage of that river against the Turks, whose whole army, under the command of the new vizir, was arrived on the opposite shore. Having laid three bridges over the Neister, the Turkish army, without any pretence of stratagem or deception, began to pass the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Galitzin having perceived this motion early in the morning of the 9th of September, immediately attacked those troops that had crossed the river in the night, who consequently could neither choose their ground, nor have time to extend or form themselves properly where they were. Notwithstanding these extreme disadvantages, the engagement was very severe, and continued from seven in the morning till noon. The Turks fought with great obstinacy; but they were at length totally defeated, and obliged to repass the river with great loss, and in the utmost disorder and confusion. It was computed, that about 60,000 Turks crossed the river before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Galitzin charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, who destroyed the flower of the Turkish cavalry. It is said that the loss of the Turks in this battle amounted to 7000 men killed upon the spot, besides wounded and prisoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the vizir had greatly contributed to this capital misfortune, yet this consideration did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the same nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to pass the whole army over. Accordingly, on the 17th of September, eight thousand Janizaries and four thousand regular cavalry, the flower of the whole Ottoman army, passed over with a large train of artillery, and the rest of the army were in motion to follow, when a sudden and extraordinary swell of the waters of the Neister carried away and totally destroyed the bridge. The Russians lost no time in making use of this great and unexpected advantage. A most desperate engagement ensued, in which the slaughter of the Turks was prodigious. Not only the field of battle, but the river, over which some few hundreds of Turks made their escape by swimming, was for several miles covered with dead bodies. The Russians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150 colours and horse-tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, and abandoned the strong fortress of Choczim, with all its stores and numerous artillery, and retired tumultuously towards the Danube. They were much exasperated at the ill conduct of their commander the vizir; and it was computed that the Turks lost 28,000 of the best and bravest of their troops, within little more than a fortnight; and 48,000 more abandoned the

army,

army, and totally deſerted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Galitzin placed a garriſon of four regiments in the fortreſs of Choczim, and ſoon after reſigned the command of the army to general count Romanzow, and returned to Peterſburgh, covered with laurels.

The Ruſſians continued to carry on the war with ſucceſs; they overran the great province of Moldavia, and general Elmdt took poſſeſſion of the capital city of Jaſſy without oppoſition. And as the Greek natives of this province had always ſecretly favoured the Ruſſians, they now took this opportunity of their ſucceſs and the abſence of the Turks, to declare themſelves openly. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and afterwards thoſe of Wallachia, acknowledged the empreſs of Ruſſia, their ſovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her. On the 18th of July, 1770, general Romanzow defeated a Turkiſh army near the river Larga: the Turks are ſaid to have amounted to 80,000 men, and were commanded by the khan of the Crimea. But on the ſecond of Auguſt, the ſame Ruſſian general obtained a ſtill greater victory over another army of the Turks commanded by a new grand vizir. This army was very numerous, but was totally defeated. It is ſaid that above 7000 Turks were killed in the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies: a vaſt quantity of ammunition, 143 pieces of braſs cannon, and ſome thouſand carriages loaded with proviſions, fell into the hands of the Ruſſians.

But it was not only by land that the Ruſſians carried on the war ſucceſsfully againſt the Turks. The empreſs ſent a conſiderable fleet of men of war, Ruſſian built, into the Mediterranean, to act againſt the Turks on that ſide. And, by means of this fleet, under count Orlop, the Ruſſians ſpread ruin and deſolation through the open iſlands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceleſs coaſts of Greece and Aſia; the particulars of which will appear in the hiſtory of Turkey. It is obſervable, that in this attempt of the Ruſſians to act as a maritime power, they were greatly aſſiſted by England; but whether in this the Engliſh government was influenced by principles of ſound policy, may very reaſonably be queſtioned.

The war between the Ruſſians and the Turks ſtill continued to be carried on by land as well as by ſea, to the advantage of the former; but at length ſome attempts were made to negotiate a peace: it was, however, a long time before matters could be accommodated between theſe great contending powers; hoſtilities were repeatedly ſuſpended, and afterwards renewed: but at laſt a peace was concluded, on the 21ſt of July, 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to the Ruſſians, by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all the ports of the Ottoman empire.

Before the concluſion of the war with the Turks, a rebellion broke out in Ruſſia, which gave much alarm to the court of Peterſburgh. A Coſſac, whoſe name was Pugatſcheff, aſſumed the name and character of the late unfortunate emperor Peter the Third. He appeared in the kingdom of Kaſan, and pretended that he made his eſcape through an extraordinary interpoſition of Providence, from the murderers who were employed to aſſaſſinate him; and that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court. There is ſaid to have been a ſtriking reſemblance in his perſon to that of the late emperor, which induced him to engage in this enterpriſe. As he poſſeſſed abilities and addreſs, his followers ſoon became very numerous; and he at length found himſelf ſo powerful, his followers being armed and provided with artillery, that he ſtood ſeveral engagements with able Ruſſian generals, at the head of large bodies of troops, and committed great

ravages in the country. But being at laſt totally defeated, and taken priſoner, he was brought to Moſcow in an iron cage, and there beheaded, on the 21ſt of January, 1775.

The peace of 1774 was then indiſpenſably neceſſary to the immediate preſervation of the Turkiſh empire; but within ſo ſmall a ſpace of time as five years, a new war was juſt upon the point of breaking out between the two empires, and was only prevented by a new treaty of pacification, which took place on the 21ſt of March, 1779. But the great ſource of diſcord was ſtill left open. The pretended independencies of the Crimea afforded ſuch an opening to Ruſſia into the very heart of the Turkiſh empire, and ſuch opportunities of interference, that it was ſcarcely poſſible that any laſting tranquillity could ſubſiſt between the two empires. A claim, made and inſiſted on by Ruſſia, of eſtabliſhing conſuls in the three provinces of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Beſſarabia, was exceedingly grievous to the Porte. After long diſputes, the Turkiſh miniſters, more from a ſenſe of the diſability of the ſtate for war, than from pacific diſpoſitions, found it neceſſary, towards the cloſe of the year 1781, to give up the point of debate with reſpect to the conſuls. This conceſſion, however mortifying, produced but a ſhort-lived effect. New troubles were continually breaking forth. The emperor of Germany having avowed his determination of ſupporting all the claims of Ruſſia as well as his own, all ſides prepared for the moſt determined hoſtility, and the preparations were immenſe on all. The year 1783 accordingly exhibited the moſt formidable apparatus of war on the northern and eaſtern borders of Europe. However, in the midſt of all theſe appearances of war, negotiations for a peace were continually carried on at Conſtantinople, which were at laſt ſigned, January 9th, 1784.

By this treaty Ruſſia retains the full ſovereignty of her new acquiſitions, viz. the Crimea, the iſle of Taman, and part of Cuban.—As the recovery and reſtoration of every thing Greek is the predominant paſſion of the court of Peterſburgh, ſo the Crimea and its dependencies are in future to be known by the name of Taurica; particular places are likewiſe reſtored to their ancient appellations, and the celebrated port and city of Caffa has now reſumed its long-forgotten name of Theodoſia. Since this acceſſion of dominion, new towns, with Greek or Ruſſian names, are riſing faſt in the deſerts, and are peopled moſtly by colonies of Greeks and Armenians.

The year 1787 opened with the extraordinary ſpectacle of the journey of the empreſs of Ruſſia to Cherſon, where it ſeems to have been her original intention to have been crowned with all poſſible magnificence, and under the ſplendid titles of empreſs of the Eaſt, liberator of Greece, and reviver of the ſeries of Roman emperors, who formerly ſwayed the ſceptre over that diviſion of the globe; but this coronation, for reaſons we are unable to aſſign, was laid aſide. The ſplendour of the route of the czarina ſurpaſſes whatever the imagination would ſpontaneouſly ſuggeſt. She was eſcorted by an army. Pioneers preceded her march, whoſe buſineſs it was to render the road as even and pleaſant as it could poſſibly be made. At the end of each day's journey ſhe found a temporary palace erected for her reception, together with all the accommodations and luxuries that Peterſburgh could have afforded. In the liſt of her followers were the ambaſſadors of London, Verſailles and Vienna; and her own ambaſſador, as well as the envoy of the emperor to the court of Conſtantinople, were appointed to meet her at Cherſon. The king of Poland met her in her journey; and the emperor, not ſatisfied with ſwelling her triumph at Cherſon, appeared in that capital eight days before her, and proceeded

ceeded to a conſiderable diſtance up the Dnieper, to intercept her progreſs. Her rout was through Kiow, where ſhe remained three months, and was received under triumphal arches; and upon her arrival at Cherſon, having thought proper to extend the walls of the city, ſhe inſcribed over one of the gates, "Through this gate lies the road to Byzantium." The czarina returned to Peterſburgh by the way of Moſcow.

Scarcely had the empreſs returned to her capital, before ſhe was followed by the Turkiſh declaration of hoſtilities. The emperor of Germany joined her in declaring war againſt the Porte, who, inſtead of being diſheartened at the formidableneſs of this confederacy, applied themſelves with redoubled ardour to prepare for reſiſtance. The operations of the Ruſſian forces were directed againſt Choczim and Oczakow. In the former of theſe undertakings, they acted rather as auxiliaries to the emperor's general, the prince of Saxe Cobourg, who, from the laſt day of June to the 29th of September, 1788, continued a very powerful attack on this city, when it ſurrendered to the arms of the imperial forces. Oczakow, after an obſtinate conteſt, in which the Ruſſians at length became expoſed to all the rigours of a winter campaign, was taken by ſtorm on the 17th of December following.

It was during the progreſs of theſe hoſtilities with the Porte, that Ruſſia found herſelf ſuddenly involved in a new and unexpected war. As a nation, Sweden had the greateſt cauſes of reſentment againſt Ruſſia for paſt injury and loſs, at the ſame time that ſhe had every thing to dread from her preſent overgrown power and boundleſs ambition, which was as little qualified in the wanton diſplay, as it was ungoverned in the actual exertion. Ruſſia has conſtantly found means to maintain a ſtrong and numerous party in Sweden. All theſe cauſes operating together, induced Guſtavus the Third to meditate a project of hoſtilities againſt Ruſſia, which were commenced in Finland, a few days after the king's arrival in that province. But the principal action of the campaign was the naval battle off Hoogland, in the gulph of Finland. The engagement, which laſted five hours, was fought with conſiderable ſkill and obſtinacy on both ſides. The forces were nearly equal. The Ruſſian fleet, commanded by admiral Greig, conſiſted of ſeventeen ſhips of the line; and the Swediſh, under the command of the duke of Sudermania, the king's brother, conſiſted of fifteen of an inferior weight of metal, but reinforced by five frigates, one of forty-four, and the reſt of forty guns each, which occaſionally ranged themſelves in order of battle. The Ruſſians poſſeſſed upon the whole a ſuperiority of 294 pieces of cannon, while that in the weight of metal was perhaps of greater moment. The victory, as is uſually the caſe in actions not apparently and abſolutely deciſive, was claimed by both ſides. But it ſeems upon the whole, that the Swedes, in the brighteſt period of their glory, had never diſplayed greater gallantry by ſea or land than they did upon this occaſion. Their princely commander merited a very conſiderable ſhare of the glory of this engagement. At laſt, after many other engagements attended with various ſucceſs, on the 14th of Auguſt 1790, a convention for a peace was ſigned between the courts of Ruſſia and Sweden, and was ratified in ſix days after.

At the cloſe of the year 1790, the empreſs had the ſatisfaction to ſee her conqueſts no longer bounded by the courſe of the Danube. The capture of Iſmail was the laſt important action. Eight different times were the Muſcovites repulſed with the ſlaughter of many of their braveſt ſoldiers. At the ninth, general Suarrow put himſelf at their head, and ſnatching a ſtandard out of an officer's hand, he ran directly towards the town, paſſed the trenches, and clambering up the wall, planted it himſelf upon the ramparts.

ramparts. "There," cried he, "my fellow ſoldiers, behold there your ſtandard in the power of your enemy, unleſs you will preſerve it; but I know you are brave, and will not ſuffer it to remain in their hands." This ſpeech had the deſired effect. It was taken by ſtorm on the 22d of December, 1790; and it is ſaid that the ſiege and capture did not coſt the Ruſſians leſs than 10,000 men. The moſt ſhocking part of the tranſaction is, that the garriſon (whoſe bravery merited, and would have received from a generous foe, the higheſt honours) were maſſacred in cold blood by the mercileſs Ruſſians, to the amount of upwards of 30,000 men, by their own account; and the place was given up to the unreſtrained fury of the brutal ſoldiery. The moſt horrid outrages were perpetrated on the defenceleſs inhabitants; and the conduct of the conquerors was more like that of a horde of cannibals than of a civiliſed people; and too ſtrongly evinces, that whatever ſteps may have been taken by the preſent or other ſovereigns of this empire to produce a forced civiliſation, both the monarchs and the people of Ruſſia are ſtill barbarians.

England and Pruſſia have, after a long and expenſive armed negotiation, at length aſſented to the demand of the empreſs, which was ſtengthened by the interference of Spain and Denmark, that Oczakow, and the territory between the rivers Bog and Nieſter, ſhall in full ſovereignty belong to Ruſſia; that the river Nieſter ſhall for the future determine the frontiers of Ruſſia and the Porte; that the two powers may erect on the ſhores of that river what fortreſſes they think proper: and Ruſſia engages to grant a free navigation on the river Nieſter. This was concluded on the 11th of Auguſt, 1791. Thus has the Porte entered into a war, for the purpoſe of regaining the Crimea, and after reducing the Ottoman empire to extreme weakneſs, and internal ſymptoms of ruin, irretrievable by a government in a regular progreſs of deterioration, loſt an important territory, and left the exiſtence of the empire at the mercy of another Ruſſian war. By ſome advantages offered to Pruſſia and Poland, and a few intrigues, Ruſſia may change the fluctuating ſtream of European politics, and by one powerful campaign overturn the Turkiſh monarchy.

The final treaty with the Turks was concluded at Jaſſy, the 9th of January, 1792. The empreſs is improving Oczakow, and rendering it a place of great ſtrength, importance, and commerce. At the ſame time Catharine is not negligent of her ſhare in European politics. She has aſſured the pope that ſhe will ſupport him in the reſumption of Avignon; and has publiſhed a warm manifeſto againſt the French revolution, and the progreſs of liberty. But Poland, and the efforts which that kingdom made in the cauſe of liberty, gave her the greateſt apprehenſions, which will be briefly narrated in our account of that country. It is riſible to behold the ſtruggles of freedom compelling monarchs to declare ſecrets better preſerved with dignified ſilence. Diſtant muſt be that period, in which a Ruſſian ſlave begins even to form an idea of freedom; and Catharine herſelf condemns it, as the popes condemned thoſe as heretics, who aſſerted the ſolar ſyſtem, the antipodes, and other mathematical truths.

The preſent empreſs of Ruſſia, notwithſtanding the very unfavourable circumſtances which attended her taking poſſeſſion of the government of that empire, has, from the commencement of her reign, filled her high ſtation with diſtinguiſhed reputation and ability. She has encouraged learning and the arts, and endeavoured greatly to extend the commerce of her ſubjects, though the extreme deſpotiſm of the Ruſſian government is a great impediment to the progreſs of the arts and ſciences, and to the real proſperity of the empire. Her imperial majeſty has, however, effected many beneficial and important regulations in the interior police of her vaſt empire, and particularly in the courts of juſtice. One of theſe

is the abolition of the uſe of torture; and ſhe has alſo adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of priſons. The new code of laws, for which ſhe hath given her inſtructions, is yet wanting to give political felicity to an oppreſſed people. But one of the moſt remarkable tranſactions of her reign is an eſtabliſhment of an armed neutrality, for the protection of the commerce of nations not at war, from any attacks or inſults from belligerent powers. By the code of maritime law, which her imperial majeſty has endeavoured to enforce, neutral ſhips are to enjoy a free navigation, even from port to port, and on the coaſts of belligerent powers; and all the effects belonging to the ſubjects of belligerent powers are to be looked upon as free, on board ſuch neutral ſhips, excepting only ſuch goods as are expreſsly ſtipulated contraband in her treaty of commerce with Great Britain. It was in 1780 that her imperial majeſty invited the powers not at war to accede to this armed neutrality. Thoſe who engaged in it were to make a common cauſe of it at ſea, againſt any of the belligerent powers who ſhould violate, with reſpect to neutral nations, theſe principles of maritime law. The armed neutrality was acceded to, the ſame year, by the kings of Sweden and Denmark, and by the States-General.

Catharine II. empreſs of all the Ruſſias, princeſs of Anhalt-Zerbſt, was born May 2d, 1729, and aſcended the throne July 9th, 1762, upon the depoſition and death of her huſband. She was married to that prince whilſt duke of Holſtein Gottorp, Sept. 1ſt, 1745, by whom ſhe has iſſue, Paul Petrowitz, great-duke of Ruſſia, born Oct. 1ſt, 1754, who has been twice married, and by his preſent ducheſs, the princeſs of Wirtemberg, has iſſue:

1. Alexander, born Dec. 23, 1777.
2. Conſtantine, born May 8, 1779.
3. Alexander Powlowna, born in Aug. 1783.
4. Helena, born Dec. 24, 1784.
5. A princeſs, born in March, 1786.
6. Another princeſs, born in May, 1788.
7. Another princeſs, born in 1792.

SCOTLAND AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

I Shall, according to the general plan I have laid down, treat of the iſlands belonging to Scotland, before I proceed to the deſcription of that ancient kingdom; and, to avoid prolixity, I ſhall comprehend under one head thoſe of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides, or Weſtern Iſles.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The iſlands of Shetland lie north-eaſt of the Orcades, or Orkney-iſlands, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude, and form part of the ſhire of Orkney.

The Orcades lie north of Dungſby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by a tempeſtuous ſtrait, called Pentland Frith, 24 miles long and 12 broad.

The Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles, are very numerous, and ſome of them large; ſituated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

CLIMATE.] There is very little difference in the climate of theſe iſlands, the air being keen, piercing, and ſalubrious; ſo that many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney iſlands they ſee to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the ſum-

mer months, they have frequent communications, both for buſineſs and curioſity, with each other, and with the continent; the reſt of the year, however, they are almoſt inacceſſible, through fogs, darkneſs, and ſtorms. It is a certain fact, that a Scotch fiſherman was impriſoned in May, for publiſhing the account of the prince and princeſs of Orange being raiſed to the throne of England, the preceding November; and he would probably have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ſhip.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS.] The largeſt of the Shetland iſlands, whi h are forty-ſix in number (though many of them are uninhabited), is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the iſland not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a caſtle are ſtill to be ſeen; and it is the ſeat of a preſbytery. On this iſland the Dutch begin to fiſh for herrings at midſummer, and their fiſhing-ſeaſon laſts ſix months.

The largeſt of the Orkney iſlands, which are about thirty in number (though ſeveral of them are unpeopled), is called Pomona. Its length is 33 miles, and its breadth, in ſome places, nine. It contains nine pariſh churches, and four excellent harbours.

The Iſle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and in ſome places almoſt as broad. It contains two pariſhes, and a caſtle, called Duart which is the chief place in the iſland. The other principal weſtern iſlands are Lewis, or Harries (for they both form but one iſland), which belongs to the ſhire of Roſs, and is 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth; its chief town is Stornway. Sky, belonging to the ſhire of Inverneſs, is 40 miles long, and, in ſome places, 30 broad; fruitful and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the caſtle of Rothſay, which gave the title of duke to the eldeſt ſons of the kings of Scotland, as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothſay is likewiſe a royal burgh; and the iſlands of Bute and Arran form the ſhire of Bute. The iſles of Ila and Jura are part of Argyleſhire, and contain together about 370 ſquare miles; but they have no towns worthy notice. North Uiſt contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fiſhing. I ſhall omit the mention of many other of the Hebrides iſlands, which are at preſent of ſmall importance, either to the public or the proprietors; though, probably, they may in future times be of great conſequence to both, by the very improvable fiſheries upon their coaſts. I cannot, however, avoid mentioning the famous iſle of Iona, once the ſeat and ſanctuary of weſtern learning, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway. It is ſtill famous for its reliques of ſanctimonious antiquity, as ſhall be hereafter mentioned. Some authors have been at great pains to deſcribe the iſland of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reaſon, that I can diſcover, but becauſe it is the remoteſt of all the north-weſt iſlands, and very difficult of acceſs; for it does not contain above thirty-five families, all of which are proteſtant, and know very little of the value of money.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE, AND RELIGION.] It is not to be imagined that the inhabitants of the iſlands belonging to Scotland can be ſo minutely deſcribed here, as they have been by ſome other authors, not ſo much on account of their importance, as their curioſity. Thoſe of Shetland and Orkney were formerly ſubject to the Normans, who conquered them in 1099, a few years after they landed in England under William called the Conqueror. In the year 1263

they were in poſſeſſion of Magnus of Norway, who ſold them to Alexander king of Scots, and he gave them as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this, they were claimed by, and became ſubject to the crown of Denmark. Chriſtian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret; and all future pretenſions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The iſles of Shetland and Orkney form a ſtewartry, or ſhire, which ſends a member to parliament. At preſent the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland; only, perhaps, they are more honeſt and religious. Men of fortune there have improved their eſtates wonderfully of late years, and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries. They build their dwelling and other houſes in a modern taſte, and are remarkable for the fineneſs of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheeſe, fiſh, ſea and land fowl (of which they have great plenty), particularly geeſe; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art to ferment, ſo as to give it a vinous quality. In ſome of the northern iſlands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norſe language, is ſtill ſpoken. Their vaſt intercourſe with the Dutch, during the fiſhing ſeaſon, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney iſlands. The people there are as expert as the Norwegians, already deſcribed, in ſeizing the neſts of ſea fowls, who build in the moſt frightful precipices and rocks. The people's temperance preſerves them from any diſeaſes known to luxury. They cure the ſcurvy and the jaundice, to which they are ſubject, with the powder of ſnail-ſhells and ſcurvy-graſs, of which they have plenty. Their religion is proteſtant, and according to the diſcipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil inſtitutions are much the ſame with thoſe of the country to which they belong.

Nothing certain can be mentioned, as to the population of theſe three diviſions of iſlands. We have the moſt undoubted evidences of hiſtory, that, about 400 years ago, they were much more populous than they are now: for the Hebrides themſelves were known often to ſend 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At preſent their numbers are ſaid not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are clothed and live like the Scotch Highlanders, who ſhall hereafter be deſcribed. They are ſimilar in perſons, conſtitutions, cuſtoms, and prejudices; but with this difference, that the more poliſhed manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands. Perhaps the deſcendents of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be diſcernible only in the Hebrides.

Thoſe iſlands alone retain the ancient uſages of the Celts, as deſcribed by the oldeſt and beſt authors; but with a ſtrong tincture of the feudal conſtitution. Their ſhanachies or ſtory-tellers ſupply the place of the ancient bards, ſo famous in hiſtory; and are the hiſtorians, or rather genealogiſts, as well as poets of the nation and family. The chief is likewiſe attended, when he appears abroad, with his muſician, who is generally a bagpiper, and dreſſed in the manner, but, as it is ſaid, more ſumptuouſly than the Engliſh minſtrels of former times *. Notwithſtanding the contempt into which that muſic is fallen, it is almoſt incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among theſe iſlanders ſo late as the beginning of the preſent century. They had regular colleges and profeſſors, and the ſtudents took degrees according to their proficiency. Many

* See Percy's Reliques of Ancient Engliſh Poetry, in 3 vols.

of

of the Celtic rites, ſome of which were too barbarous to be retained or even mentioned, are now aboliſhed. The inhabitants, however, ſtill preſerve the moſt profound reſpect and affection for their ſeveral chieftains, notwithſtanding all the pains that have been taken by the Britiſh legiſlature to break thoſe connections which experience has ſhewn to be ſo dangerous to government. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders already deſcribed; though they certainly fare better; for they have oatmeal, plenty of fiſh and fowl, cheeſe, butter, milk, and whey; and alſo mutton, beef, goat, kid, and veniſon. They indulge themſelves, like their foreſathers, in a romantic poetical turn, which is an enemy to induſtry, and indeed to domeſtic and perſonal cleanlineſs. The agility of both ſexes in the exerciſes of the field, and in dancing to their favourite muſic, is remarkable.

The reader would not pardon an author, who, in treating of this ſubject, ſhould omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which diſtinguiſhes the inhabitants of the Hebrides under the name of *ſecond ſight*. It would be equally abſurd to attempt to diſprove the reality of the inſtances of this kind that have been brought by reputable authors, as to admit all that has been ſaid upon the ſubject. The adepts of the ſecond ſight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather preſentations, either really or typically, which ſwim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compaſs of 24 or 48 hours. I do not, however, from the beſt information, obſerve that any two of thoſe adepts agree as to the manner and forms of thoſe revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth ſeems to be, that thoſe iſlanders, by indulging themſelves in lazy habits, acquire viſionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are preſented with thoſe phantaſms, which they miſtake for fatidical or prophetic manifeſtations. They inſtantly begin to propheſy; and it would be abſurd to ſuppoſe, that, amidſt many thouſand of predictions, ſome did not happen to be fulfilled; and theſe being well atteſted, give a ſanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides being the moſt weſterly iſlands where the Celts ſettled, their language muſt remain there in its greateſt purity. This opinion, though very plauſible, has failed in experience. Many Celtic words, it is true, as well as cuſtoms, are there found; but the vaſt intercourſe which the Hebrides had with the Danes, the Norwegians, and other northern people, whoſe language is mixed with Sclavonian and Teutonic, which laſt has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; ſo that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erſe, which was ſpoken by their neighbours in Lochaber and the oppoſite coaſts of Scotland, the undoubted deſcendents of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion profeſſed in the Hebrides is chiefly preſbyterian, as eſtabliſhed in the church of Scotland: but popery and ignorance ſtill prevail among ſome of the iſlanders, whilſt ſuperſtitious practices and cuſtoms ſeem to be almoſt grafted in their nature.

SOIL, MINES, AND QUARRIES.] Though it is not in the power of natural philoſophy to account for the reaſon, yet it is certain that the ſoil, both of the northern and weſtern iſlands belonging to Scotland, has ſuffered an amazing alteration. It is evident to the eye-ſight, that many of theſe iſlands have been the habitations of the Druids, whoſe temples are ſtill viſible in moſt of them; and thoſe temples were ſurrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The

ſtumps of former trees however are diſcernible, as are many veſtiges of grandeur, even ſince the admiſſion of the Chriſtian religion; which prove the decreaſe of the riches, power and population of the inhabitants. Experience daily ſhows, that if the ſoil of the northern or weſtern iſlands till of late was barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for ſuch ſpots of them as are now cultivated, produce corn, vegetables, and garden-ſtuff, more than ſufficient for the inhabitants; and even fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and ſilver mines, marle, ſlate, free-ſtone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon theſe iſlands. They are not deſtitute of fine freſh water, nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the ſame time it muſt be owned, that the preſent face of the ſoil is bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that are reared in gardens.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe are all in their infancy in thoſe iſlands. The reader can eaſily ſuppoſe that their ſtaple commodities conſiſt of fiſh, eſpecially herrings, which are the beſt in the world, and, when properly cured, are equal even to thoſe of the Dutch. They carry on likewiſe a conſiderable trade in down and feathers; and their ſheep afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarſe cloths; and even the linen manufactures make no ſmall progreſs in theſe iſlands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are diſpoſed of in ſale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they ſalt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and induſtry, with ſome portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render theſe iſlands at once ornamental and beneficial to the mother country, as well as to their inhabitants.

BEASTS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Little can be ſaid on this head, that is peculiar to theſe iſlands. In the countries already deſcribed, mention has been made of moſt of the birds and fiſhes that have been diſcovered here; only it is thought that they contain a ſpecies of falcon or hawk, of a more noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elſewhere. The Shetland iſles are famous for a ſmall breed of horſes, which are incredibly active, ſtrong, and hardy, and frequently ſeen in the ſtreets of London, yoked to the ſplendid carriages of the curious and wealthy. The coaſts of thoſe iſlands, till within theſe twenty years, ſeemed, however, to have been created, not for the inhabitants, but for ſtrangers. The latter furniſh the former with wines, ſtrong liquors, ſpice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above 100 per cent. But it is to be hoped that this pernicious traffic now draws to an end. Three thouſand buſſes have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fiſhery, beſides thoſe fitted out by the Hamburghers, Bremeners, and other northern ports.

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. } Theſe iſlands exhibit many pregnant proofs, in their churches, the veſtiges of old forts, and other buildings, both ſacred and civil, of what hath been already obſerved, that they were formerly more populous than they are now. The uſe and conſtruction of ſome of thoſe works are not eaſily accounted for at preſent. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the weſtern iſlands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a ſtone called a dwarf ſtone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick; in which is a ſquare hole, about two feet high for an entrance, with a ſtone of the ſame ſize for a door. Within this entrance is the reſemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the ſtone, big enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endleſs to recount the various veſtiges of

of the Druidical temples remaining in theſe iſlands, ſome of which have required prodigious labour, and are ſtupendous erections, of the ſame nature as the famous Stonehenge near Saliſbury; others ſeem to be memorials of particular perſons or actions, conſiſting of one large ſtone ſtanding upright; ſome of them have been ſculptured, and others have ſerved as ſepulchres, and are compoſed of ſtones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in theſe iſlands; and the monuments of Daniſh and Norwegian fortifications might long employ an able antiquary to deſcribe. The gigantic bones, found in many burial places here, give room to believe that the former inhabitants were of larger ſize than the preſent. It is likewiſe probable, from ſome ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine ſilver fibulæ or claſps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with theſe parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St Magnus, but now converted into a pariſh church. Its roof is ſupported by 14 pillars on each ſide, and its ſteeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white poliſhed ſtone, emboſſed and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are ſtill more diſtinguiſhed than the Orkney or Shetland iſles for their remains of antiquity; and it would far exceed the bounds allotted to this head, were we even to mention every noted monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purpoſes. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated iſle of Iona, called St. Columb-Kill. Not to enter into the hiſtory or origin of the religious erections upon this iſland, it is ſufficient to ſay, that it ſeems to have ſerved as a ſanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy men of learning, while Ireland, England, and Scotland, were deſolated by barbariſm. It appears that the northern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the ſanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of ſome Scotch, Iriſh, and Norwegian kings, with ſome Gaëlic inſcriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninſcribed. The ſteeple is large, the cupola 21 feet ſquare, the doors and windows are curiouſly carved, and the altar is of the fineſt marble. Innumerable are the inſcriptions of ancient cuſtoms and ceremonies, that are diſcernible upon this iſland; and which give countenance to the well-known obſervation, that when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in theſe iſlands.

The iſlands belonging to Scotland contain likewiſe ſome natural curioſities peculiar to themſelves: the phaſeoli, or Molucca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven, as ſuppoſed, from the Weſt Indies, by the weſterly winds, which often force aſhore many curious ſhells and marine productions, highly eſteemed by naturaliſts. In the pariſh of Harn, a large piece of ſtag's horn was found very deep in the earth, by the inhabitants who were digging for marle; and certain bituminous effluvia produce ſurpriſing phænomena, which the natives believe to be ſupernatural.

But ſome of the moſt aſtoniſhing appearances in nature have remained undeſcribed, and, till lately, unobſerved even by the natives of theſe iſlands;—a diſcovery reſerved for the inquiſitive genius of Mr. Banks, now Sir Joſeph Banks, who, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, anno 1772, ſays, "We were no ſooner arrived, than we were ſtruck with

with a ſcene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the moſt ſanguine foundations: the whole of that end of the iſland (viz. Staffa, a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth) ſupported by ranges of natural pillars, moſtly above fifty feet high, ſtanding in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themſelves: upon a firm baſis of ſolid unformed rock, above theſe, the ſtratum which reaches to the ſoil or ſurface of the iſland, varied in thickneſs as the iſland itſelf formed into hills or vallies; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment; ſome of theſe, above ſixty feet in thickneſs from the baſe to the point, formed, by the ſloping of the hill on each ſide, almoſt in the ſhape of thoſe uſed in architecture.

"Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or palaces built by man? mere models or playthings; imitations as diminutive, as his works will always be, when compared to thoſe of nature. Where is now the boaſt of the architect? Regularity, the only part in which he fancied himſelf to exceed his miſtreſs, Nature, is here found in her poſſeſſion; and here it has been for ages undeſcribed. Proceeding farther to the N.W. you meet with the higheſt ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which is paſt all deſcription: here they are bare to their very baſes, and the ſtratum below them is alſo viſible." Mr. Banks particulariſes ſundry other appearances in this and a neighbouring iſland, which is wholly compoſed of pillars without any ſtratum. In ſome parts of Staffa, inſtead of being placed upright, the pillars were obſerved to lie on their ſides, each forming a ſegment of a circle; but the moſt ſtriking object in this field of ſcenery is Fingal's Cave, which Mr. Banks deſcribes in the following manner:—"With our minds full of ſuch reflections, we proceeded along the ſhore, treading upon another *Giants' Cauſeway*, every ſtone being regularly formed into a certain number of ſides and angles; till, in a ſhort time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the moſt magnificent, I ſuppoſe, that has ever been deſcribed by travellers*. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than ſuch a ſpace, ſupported on each ſide by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of thoſe which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which, a yellow ſtalagmitic matter has exuded, which ſerves to define the angles preciſely, and at the ſame time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and to render it ſtill more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; ſo that the fartheſt extremity is very plainly ſeen from without; and the air within being agitated with the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholeſome, free entirely from the damp of vapours, with which natural caverns in general abound."

Mr. Pennant, who alſo made a voyage to theſe iſlands in the ſame year, had a glance of Staffa, in his paſſage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by ſtormy weather from approaching it. "On the weſt," ſays

* The dimenſions of the cave are thus given by Mr. Banks:

Length of the cave from the arch without	371 Feet.
From the pitch of the arch	210
Breadth of ditto at the mouth	53
At the further end	20
Height of the arch at the mouth	117
At the end	70
Height of an outſide pillar	39
Of one at the north-weſt corner	54
Depth of water at the mouth	18
At the bottom	9

he,

he, "appears the beautiful groupe of the Treaſhuniſh iſles. Neareſt lies Staffa, a new Giants' Cauſeway, riſing amidſt the waves, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; gloſſy and reſplendent, from the beams of the eaſtern ſun." And in the iſle of Sky, a conſiderable way northward, he reſumes the ſubject: "We had in view a fine ſeries of genuine baſaltic columns, reſembling the Giants' Cauſeway; the pillars were above twenty feet high, conſiſting of four, five, and ſix angles, but moſtly of five. At a ſmall diſtance from theſe, on the ſlope of a hill, is a tract of ſome roods entirely formed of the tops of ſeveral ſeries of columns, even and cloſe ſet, forming a reticulated ſurface of amazing beauty and curioſity. This is the moſt northern baſaltes I am acquainted with; the laſt of four in the Britiſh dominions, all running from ſouth to north, nearly in a meridian: the Giants' Cauſeway appears firſt; Staffa, &c. ſucceeds; the rock Humbla about twenty leagues farther, and finally, thoſe columns of Sky: the depth of the ocean, in all probability, conceals the vaſt link of this chain."

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND HISTORY.] See Scotland.

SCOTLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

MILES.		DEGREES.	
Length - - - - - 300	between	54 and 59	North latitude.
Breadth - - - - - 190		1 and 6	Weſt longitude.

NAME.] THE Celtæ or Gauls are ſuppoſed to have been the original inhabitants of this kingdom. The Scots, a Scythian tribe, invaded it about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland; and the word Scot is no other than a corruption of Scuyth, or Scythian, being originally from that immenſe country, called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed, by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Eſcotia; by the French, Ecoſſe; and Scotland by the Scots, Germans, and Engliſh.

BOUNDARIES.] Scotland, which contains an area of 27,794 ſquare miles, is bounded on the ſouth by England; and on the north, eaſt, and weſt, by the Deucaledonian, German, and Iriſh ſeas, or more properly, the Atlantic ocean.

DIVISIONS AND SUBDIVISIONS.] Scotland is divided into the counties ſouth of the Frith of Forth, the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh; and thoſe to the north of the ſame river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the ancient national diviſion; but ſome modern writers, with leſs geographical accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and cuſtoms of the inhabitants of each.

Eighteen counties, or ſhires, are allotted to the ſouthern diviſion, and fifteen to the northern; and thoſe counties are ſubdivided into ſheriffdoms, ſtewartries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

Shires.

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1 Edinburgh (429*)	Mid Lothian - - - -	Edinburgh, W. long. 3. N. lat. 56. Muſſelburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith.
2 Haddington (121)	Eaſt Lothian - - - - -	Dunbar, Haddington, and North Berwick.
3 Merſe, anciently Berwick† (114)	The Merches, and Lauderdale - - - -	Dunſee and Lauder.
4 Roxborough (165)	Tiviotdale, Lidſdale, Eſkdale and Euſdale	Jedburgh, Kelſo, and Melroſs.
5 Selkirk - - (19)	Ettrick Foreſt - - - -	Selkirk.
6 Peebles - - (42)	Tweedale - - - - -	Peebles.
7 Lanerk - - (388)	Clydeſdale - - - - - -	Glaſgow, W. lon. 4. 5. N. lat. 55. 52. Hamilton, Lanerk, and Rutherglen.
8 Dumfries - (188)	Nithſdale, Anandale -	Dumfries, Annan.
9 Wigtown - (190)	Galloway, Weſt part	Wigtown, Stranraer, and Whitehorn.
10 Kircudbright (100)	Galloway, Eaſt part	Kircudbright.
11 Air - - - - (280)	Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham - - -	Air, Kilmarnock, Irwin, Maybole, Stewarton and Saltcots.
12 Dumbarton - (66)	Lenox - - - - - - -	Dumbarton.
13 Bute (34) and 14 Caithneſs - (105)	Bute, Arran, and Caithneſs - - - - - - -	Rothſay. Wick. North lat. 58. 40. and Thurſo.
15 Renfrew - - (126)	Renfrew - - - - - -	Renfrew, Paiſley, Greenock and Port Glaſgow.
16 Stirling - - - (76)	Stirling - - - - - - -	Stirling and Falkirk.
17 Linlithgow - (80)	Weſt Lothian - - - -	Linlithgow, Burroughſtonneſs, and Queen's-ferry.
18 Argyle - - - (314)	Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn, with part of the Weſtern Iſles, particularly Ila, Jura, Mull, Wiſt, Teri, Col, and Liſmore - - - - -	Inverary, Dunſtaffnage, Killonmer, and Campbeltown.
19 Perth - - - - (570)	Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Stormont, Glenſhield, and Raynock	Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld.

* The numbers ſhow the proportion of militia as propoſed to be raiſed in each ſhire, when that ſcheme was laid before parliament in 1775.

† Berwick, on the north ſide of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county of itſelf, in a political ſenſe diſtinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
20 Kincardin - (109)	Merns - - - - (109)	Bervie, Stonhive and Kincardin.
21 Aberdeen - (551)	Mar, Buchan, Garioch and Strathbogie - -	Old Aberdeen, W. lon. 1. 40. N. lat. 57. 22. New Aberdeen, Fraserſburgh, Peterhead, Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum.
22 Inverneſs - - (282)	Aird, Strathglaſs, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber and Glenmoriſon - - - -	Inverneſs, Inverlochy, Fort Auguſtus, Boileau.
23 Nairne (27) and 24 Cromartie - - (24)	Weſtern part of Murray and Cromartie	Nairne, Cromartie.
25 Fife - - - - (387)	Fife - - - - - - - -	St. Andrew's, Cowper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt Iſland, Dumfermline, Dyſart, Anſtruther and Aberdour.
26 Forfar - - - (326)	Forfar, Angus - - -	Montroſe, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroth, and Brechin.
27 Bamff - - - (182)	Bamff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Buchan	Bamff and Cullen.
28 Sutherland (100)	Strathnaver and Sutherland - - - -	Strathey and Dornoch.
29 Clacmannan (31) and 30 Kinroſs - - - (23)	Fife part - - - - - -	Culroſs, Clacmannan, Alloa, and Kinroſs.
31 Roſs - - - - (201)	Eaſter & Weſter Roſs, Iſles of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochcarren, Ardmeanach, Redcaſtle, Ferrintoſh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald - - -	Taine, Dingwall, Fortroſe, Roſemarkie, and New Kelſo.
32 Elgin - - - (145)	Murray and Strathſpey	Elgin and Forres.
33 Orkney - - (183)	Iſles of Orkney and Shetland - - - - -	Kirkwall, W. lon. 3. N. lat. 59. 45. Skalloway, near the Meridian of London. N. lat. 61.

In all thirty-three ſhires, which chooſe thirty repreſentatives to ſit in the parliament of Great-Britain; Bute and Caithneſs chooſing alternately, as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clacmannan and Kinroſs.

The

The royal boroughs which chooſe repreſentatives, are,

Edinburgh — — — — — —	1
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornoch, Dingwall, and Tayne —	1
Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairne, and Forres — — —	1
Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverary, and Kintore — — —	1
Aberdeen, Bervie, Montroſe, Aberbrothe, and Brechin —	1
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrew's — —	1
Crail, Kilrenny, Aniſtruther Eaſt and Weſt, and Pittenweem	1
Dyſart, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt Iſland — —	1
Innerkythen, Dumfermlin, Queensferry, Culroſs, and Stirling — — — —	1
Glaſgow, Renfrew, Ruthergien, and Dumbarton — —	1
Haddington, Dunbar, N. Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh	1
Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanerk — — —	1
Dumfries, Sanquehar, Annan, Lochmaban, and Kircudbright	1
Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer, and Whitehorn—	1
Air, Irwin, Rothſay, Cambeltown, and Inverary — —	1

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER.] In the northern parts, daylight, at midſummer, laſts 18 hours and 5 minutes; and the day and night in winter are in the ſame proportion. The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in ſo northerly a climate. This ariſes partly from the variety of its hills, vallies, rivers, and lakes, but ſtill more, as in England, from the vicinity of the ſea, which affords thoſe warm breezes, that not only ſoften the natural keenneſs of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent thoſe epidemic diſtempers that prevail in many other countries. In the neighbourhood of ſome high mountains, however, which are generally covered with ſnow, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. The ſoil in general is not ſo fertile as that of England; and in many places leſs fitted for agriculture than for paſture. At the ſame time, there are particular plains and vallies of the moſt luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, inceſſantly waſhed down from the mountains, and depoſited in theſe vallies, afford them a vegetative nouriſhment, which is capable of carrying the ſtrongeſt plants into perfection; though experience has proved, that many vegetables and hortulane productions do not come ſo ſoon to maturity in this country as in England. There is, indeed, a great variety of ſoils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diverſified by a charming intermixture of natural objects. The vaſt inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the huſbandman, are particularly pleaſing to a traveller, and afford thoſe delightful ſituations for country houſes, of which many of the Scottiſh nobility and gentry have ſo judiciouſly availed themſelves. It is their ſituation, more than any expenſive magnificence, that occaſions the ſeats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of lord Hopetoun, and many others, to fix the attention of every traveller. The water in Scotland, as every where elſe, depends on the qualities of the ſoil through which it paſſes. Water paſſing through a heavy ſoil is turbid and noxious; but, filtrating through ſand or gravel, it is clear, light, and ſalutary to the ſtomach. This laſt is in general the caſe in Scotland, where the water is better than that of more ſouthern climates, in proportion as the land is worſe.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian hills, which run from eaſt to weſt, from near Aberdeen, to Cowal in Argyleſhire, almoſt the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland-hills, runs through Lothian, and joins thoſe of Tweedale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, riſes near the eaſtern coaſt,

and runs weſtward through the Merſe. Beſides thoſe continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot Hills on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, ſometimes go by the celtic word, *Laws*. Many of them are ſtupendouſly high, and of beautiful forms, but too numerous to be particulariſed here.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The largeſt river in Scotland is the Forth, which riſes in Monteith near Callendar, and paſſing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, diſcharges itſelf near Edinburgh into that arm of the German ſea, to which it gives the name of Frith of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which iſſues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbin, and running ſouth-eaſt, paſſes the town of Perth, and falls into the ſea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the moſt rapid river in Scotland, iſſues from a lake of the ſame name in Badenoch, and, running from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, falls into the ſea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from weſt to eaſt, and diſembogue themſelves at Aberdeen. The Tweed riſes on the borders of Lanerkſhire, and, after many beautiful ſerpentine turnings, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea at Berwick, where it ſerves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eaſtern ſide. The Clyde is a large river on the weſt of Scotland, has its riſe in Annandale, runs north-weſt through the valley of that name, and after paſſing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glaſgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Frith of Clyde, oppoſite to the iſle of Bute. Beſides thoſe capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior ſort, well provided with ſalmon, trout, and other fiſh, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of thoſe rivers go by the name of *Ek*, which is the old Celtic name for water. The greateſt improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in that part of Great-Britain, was undertaken at a very conſiderable expenſe, by a ſociety of public-ſpirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde together; by which a communication has been opened between the eaſt and weſt ſeas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *Lochs*) are too many to be particularly deſcribed. Thoſe called Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Loch-neſs, Loch-Aw, and one or two more, preſent us with ſuch pictureſque ſcenes as are ſcarcely equalled in Europe, if we except Ireland. Several of theſe lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of freſh-water fiſh. The Scotch ſometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the ſea; for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of ſwans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as ſome think, to the plant *alorina*, which grows in its waters, with a ſtraight ſtalk and a cluſter of ſeeds at the top. Near Loch-neſs is a hill almoſt two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold freſh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine deſcendents of the Celts, were probably enabled to preſerve themſelves independent on, and unmixed with, the Lowlanders. Beſides theſe rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coaſts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, navigable bays or arms of the ſea, as the bay of Glenluce and Wigtown bay; ſometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which ſeparates Scotland from

England

England on the weſt; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and thoſe of Cromarty and Dornoch.

The face of Scotland, even where it is moſt uninviting, preſents us with the moſt incontrovertible evidences of its having formerly abounded with timber. The deepeſt moſſes, or moraſſes, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine, have a preſerving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been diſcovered in thoſe moſſes. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian foreſt, the remains of which are now thought to be Ettrick wood, in the ſouth of Scotland, is famous in antiquity for being the retreat of the Caledonian wild boars; but ſuch an animal is not now to be ſeen in Scotland. Several woods, however, ſtill remain in that country; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the uſe of furnaces and foundries; but lying at a great diſtance from water-carriage, though the work ſucceeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. Fir trees grow in great perfection almoſt all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where ſome woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth; but, through the inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Though Scotland does not at preſent boaſt of its gold mines, yet it is certain that it contains ſuch, or at leaſt that Scotland formerly afforded a conſiderable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor: and it is an undoubted fact, that, when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered diſhes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were preſented to the gueſts by way of deſſert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, in the minority of his grandſon, drove thoſe foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which ſince that time have never been reſumed. Some ſmall pieces of gold have been found in thoſe parts, waſhed down by the floods. It likewiſe appears by the public records, that thoſe beautiful coins, ſtruck by James V. called bonnet-pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the ſame metal.

Several landlords in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead-mines, which are ſaid to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of ſilver; but we know of no ſilver mines that are worked at preſent. Some copper-mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the eaſt, weſt, and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vaſt emolument of the public. Lime-ſtone is here in great plenty, as is free-ſtone; ſo that the houſes of the better ſort are conſtructed of the moſt beautiful materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places of Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from ſupplying that defect by plantations of wood: and the peat-moſſes being in many parts, of the north eſpecially, almoſt exhauſted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulties for fuel: however, the taſte for plantations of all kinds, that now prevails, will ſoon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is ſaid to be dug up in Lanerkſhire; alum-mines have been found in Bamffſhire; cryſtal, variegated pebbles, and other tranſparent ſtones, which admit of the fineſt poliſh for ſeals, are found in various parts; as are talc, flint, ſea-ſhells, potter's clay, and fuller's earth. The ſtones which the country-people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they aſſign a ſupernatural origin and uſe, were probably the flint heads of arrows uſed by

by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron ore, both in mines and ſtones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to taſte the ſweets, in their founderies, as at Carron, and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } It is certain that the ſoil of Scotland may be rendered, in many parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even ſaid that ſome tracts of the low countries at preſent exceed in value Engliſh eſtates of the ſame extent, becauſe they are ſo far leſs exhauſted and worn out than thoſe of the ſouthern parts of the iſland; and agriculture is now perhaps as well underſtood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very conſiderable part of the landed property has lately (perhaps happily for the public) fallen into new hands. The merchants of Glaſgow, who are the life and ſoul of that part of the kingdom, while they are daily introducing new branches of commerce, are no leſs attentive to the progreſs of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and the whole iſland in general, the moſt eſſential ſervice. The active genius of theſe people extends even to moors, rocks, and marſhes, which, being hitherto reckoned uſeleſs, were conſequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain ſpecies of grain or timber, for which the ſoil is beſt adapted.

But the fruits of ſkill and induſtry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where agriculture is thoroughly underſtood, and the farmers, who generally rent from 3 to 500l. per ann. are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverſe, however, may be obſerved of a very conſiderable part of Scotland, which ſtill remains in a ſtate of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real intereſt, refuſe to grant ſuch leaſes as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In ſuch places, the huſbandmen barely exiſt upon the gleanings of a ſcanty farm, ſeldom exceeding 20 or 30l. per ann. the cattle are lean and ſmall, the houſes mean beyond expreſſion, and the face of the country exhibits the moſt deplorable marks of poverty and oppreſſion. Indeed, from a miſtaken notion of the landed people in general, the greateſt part of the kingdom lies naked and expoſed, for want of ſuch hedge-rows and planting as adorn the country of England. They conſider hedges as uſeleſs and cumberſome, as occupying more room than what they call ſtone incloſures, which, except in the Lothians already mentioned, are generally no other than low paltry walls, huddled up of looſe ſtones, without lime or mortar, which yield a bleak and mean appearance.

The ſoil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and paſture. In the ſouthern counties the fineſt garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, are ſaid to fall little, if at all, ſhort of thoſe in England; and the ſame may be ſaid of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of ſalubrious and pleaſant-taſted berries; though it muſt be owned that many extenſive tracts are covered with a ſtrong heath. The ſea-coaſt produces the alga-marina, dulſe or duliſh, a moſt wholeſome nutritive weed, in great quantities, and other marine plants, which are eaten for nouriſhment, or pleaſure.

The fiſhes on the coaſt of Scotland are much the ſame with thoſe of the iſlands and countries already deſcribed; but the Scots have improved in their fiſheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture;

for ſocieties have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country; and bids fair to emulate the Dutch themſelves in curing as well as catching their fiſh. In former times, the Scots ſeldom ventured to fiſh above a league's diſtance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly and ſucceſsfully as any of their neighbours. Their ſalmons, which they can ſend more early, when prepared, to the Levant and ſouthern markets than the Engliſh and Iriſh can, are of great ſervice to the nation, as the returns are generally made in ſpecie, or beneficial commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds, either of wild or domeſtic animals, that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands; but their fleſh is not comparable to Engliſh veniſon. Hares, and all other animals for game, are here plentiful; as are the grouſe and heath-cock, which is a moſt delicious bird, as likewiſe are the capperkaily, and the ptarmacan, which is of the pheaſant kind; but theſe birds are ſcarce even in the Highlands, and when diſcovered, are very ſhy. The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and ſheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the ſouth, are almoſt incredible, and formerly brought large ſums into the country; the black cattle eſpecially, which, when fattened on the ſouthern paſtures, have been reckoned ſuperior to Engliſh beef. It is to be hoped, however, that this trade is now on its decline, by the vaſt increaſe of manufactures, whoſe demand for butcher's meat muſt leſſen the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a ſufficient ſtock, by proper methods, may be raiſed to ſupply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

Formerly the kings of Scotland were at infinite pains to mend the breed of the Scotch horſes, by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent: but the truth is, notwithſtanding all the care that was taken, it was found that the climate and ſoil of Scotland was unfavourable to that noble animal; for they diminiſhed both in ſize and ſpirit; ſo that about the time of the union, few horſes, natives of Scotland were of much value. Great efforts have been made of late to introduce the Engliſh and foreign breeds, and much pains have been taken for providing them with proper food and management, but with what ſucceſs, time alone can diſcover.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. The population of Scotland is generally fixed at about a million and a half of ſouls. This calculation reſts merely upon vague conjectures, as I know of no attempt that has been made to ſupport even its probability. If we form an eſtimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that ſome public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their ſeveral pariſhes. The only records at preſent that can be appealed to, are thoſe of the army; and, by the beſt information, they make the number of ſoldiers furniſhed by Scotland, in the war which began in 1755, to amount to 80,000 men. We are, however, to obſerve, that about 60,000 of theſe were raiſed in the iſlands and Highlands, which form by far the leaſt populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions, as no country in the world, excluſive of the army, ſends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we conſult the moſt ancient and creditable hiſtories, the population of Scotland, in the thirteenth century, muſt have been exceſſive, as it afforded ſo

many thouſands to fall by the ſwords of the Engliſh, without any ſenſible decreaſe (ſo far as I can find) of the inhabitants.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned: and a kind of characteriſtical feature, that of high cheek-bones, reigns in their faces; they are lean, but clean limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventuring ſpirit was chiefly owing to their laws of ſucceſſion, which inveſted the elder brother, as head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a very ſcanty portion for the other ſons. This obliged the latter to ſeek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native ſoil than the Scots have in general. It is true, this diſparity of fortune among the ſons of one family prevails in England likewiſe; but the reſources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to thoſe of a country ſo narrow, and ſo little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

An intelligent reader may eaſily perceive that the ridiculous family-pride, which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguiſhed in Scotland, was owing to the feudal inſtitutions which prevailed there in all the horrors of blood and barbarity. The family differences, eſpecially of the Highlanders, familiariſed them to blood and ſlaughter; and the death of an enemy, however effected, was always a matter of triumph. Theſe paſſions did not live in the breaſts of the common people only; for they were authoriſed and cheriſhed by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had ſeen the world, were converſant in the courts of Europe, maſters of polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and ſocial life. Their kings, excepting ſome of them who were endued with extraordinary virtues, were conſidered in little other light than commanders of their army in time of war; for in time of peace their civil authority was ſo little felt, that every clan or family, even in the moſt civiliſed parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as its ſovereign. Theſe ideas were confirmed even by the laws, which gave thoſe petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own eſtates; and they generally executed in four and twenty hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which thoſe chieftains had of outvying each other in the number of their followers, created perpetual animoſities, which ſeldom or never ended without bloodſhed; ſo that the common people, whoſe beſt qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their maſter, and the aggrandiſement of his name, lived in a ſtate of continual hoſtility.

The late Archibald, duke of Argyle, was the firſt chieftain we have heard of, who had the patriotiſm to attempt to reform his dependents, and to baniſh from them thoſe barbarous ideas. His example has been followed by others; and there can ſcarcely be a doubt, but that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of ſociety.

From what has been ſaid, it appears that the ancient modes of living among the Scotch nobility and gentry, are as far from being applicable to the preſent time, as the forms of a Roman ſenate are to that of a popiſh conclave; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent ſo quick and ſo ſudden a tranſition of manners.

The peaſantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can form their tempers better than they do to their ſtations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their paſſions, to behave ſubmiſſively to their ſuperiors, and live within the bounds of the moſt rigid œconomy. Hence they ſave their money and their conſtitutions; and few inſtances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at preſent in Scotland. They ſeldom enter ſingly upon any daring enterpriſe; but when they act in concert, the ſecrecy, ſagacity, and reſo-

lution, with which they carry on any desperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations arising from their poverty, is still more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conspiracies; witness that which put Porteus to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midst of 20,000 people; and though the agents were well known, and some of them tried, with a reward of 500l. annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found sufficient to bring them to punishment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both sexes, under a still greater temptation, to the young pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could scarcely be believed, were it not well attested.

They affect a fondness for the memory and language of their forefathers beyond perhaps any people in the world; but this attachment is seldom or never carried into any thing that is indecent or disgustful, though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of ancient Scotch dishes, such as the haggess, the sheep's head singed, the fish in sauce, the chicken broth, and minced collops. These dishes, in their original dressing, were savoury and nutritive for keen appetites; but the modern improvements that have been made in the Scotch cookery have rendered them agreeable to the most delicate palates.

The inhabitants of those parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by pasture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful simplicity of the Scotch tunes is relished by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the subject; and many of the airs have been brought upon the English stage, with variations, under new names, but with this disadvantage, that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of music, they are mostly altered for the worse, being stript of their original simplicity, which, however irregular, is the most essential characteristic, is so agreeable to the ear, and has such powers over the human breast. Those of a more lively and merry strain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dress, by the fifes, an instrument for which they are remarkably well suited. It has been ridiculously supposed that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian secretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch music. This is a falsehood invented by his country, in envy to the Scots. Their finest tunes existed in their church music, long before Rizzio's arrival; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was chiefly employed by his mistress in foreign dispatches, ever composed an air during the short time he lived in Scotland; but were there no other evidences to confute this report, the original character of the music itself is sufficient.

The lower people in Scotland are not so much accustomed as the English are to clubs, dinners, and other convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, for that very reason they seem to enjoy them more completely. One institution there is, at once social and charitable, and that is, the contributions raised for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Those festivities partake of the ancient Saturnalia; but though the company consists promiscuously of the high and the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. Each guest pays according to his inclination or ability, but seldom under a shilling a head, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be servants in respectable families, the contributions are so liberal that they often establish the young couple in the world.

The common people of Scotland retain the solemn decent manner of their ancestors at burials. When a relation dies in a town, the parish beadle is sent round with a passing-bell; but he stops at certain places, and with a slow melancholy tone announces the name of the party deceased,

and

and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his fellow countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceaſed was beloved in the place, vaſt numbers attend. The proceſſion is ſometimes preceded by the magiſtrates and their officers, as the deceaſed is carried in his coffin, covered by a velvet pall, with chair-poles, to the grave, where it is interred, without any oration or addreſs to the people, or prayers, or farther ceremony, than the neareſt relation thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the ſame manner as in England, but without any funeral ſervice. The highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called *coronachs*, and were accompanied by the voices of the attendants of both ſexes.

Dancing is a favourite amuſement in this country; but little regard is paid to art or gracefulneſs: the whole conſiſts in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactneſs. One of the peculiar diverſions practiſed by the gentlemen, is the *Goff*, which requires an equal degree of art and ſtrength; it is played by a bat and a ball; the latter is ſmaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper conſtruction, till it terminates in the part that ſtrikes the ball, which is loaded with lead and faced with horn. The diverſion itſelf reſembles that of the *Mall*, which was common in England in the middle of the laſt century. An expert player will ſend the ball an amazing diſtance at one ſtroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who ſtrikes it in feweſt ſtrokes into a hole, wins the game. The diverſion of *Curling* is likewiſe, I believe, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat ſtones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common ſtand to a mark at a certain diſtance; and whoever is neareſt the mark is the victor. Theſe two may be called the ſtanding winter and ſummer diverſions in Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diverſions common in England, *cricket* excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen conſidering it as too athletic and mechanical.

LANGUAGE AND DRESS.] I place theſe two articles under the ſame head, becauſe they had formerly an intimate relation to each other, both of them being evidently Celtic. The highland plaid is compoſed of a woollen ſtuff, ſometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This conſiſts of various colours, forming ſtripes which croſs each other at right angles; and the natives value themſelves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call ſetts, of thoſe ſtripes and colours, which, where ſkilfully managed, produce a pleaſing effect to the eye. Above the ſhirt, the Highlander wears a waiſtcoat of the ſame compoſition with the plaid, which commonly conſiſts of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the ſhoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as repreſented in ancient ſtatues; ſometimes it is faſtened round the middle with a leathern belt, ſo that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and ſupplies the want of breeches. This they call being dreſſed in a *phelig*, but which the Lowlanders call a *kilt*, and which is probably the ſame word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the ſame variegated ſtuff, buckled round the waiſt, and this they term the *phelibeg*, which ſeems to be of Mileſian extraction. Their ſtockings are likewiſe of tartan tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into taſſels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undreſſed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is uſed, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the phelibeg hung generally their knives and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron

piſtol, ſometimes of fine workmanſhip, and curiouſly inlaid with ſilver. The introduction of the broad ſword of Andrea Ferrara, a Spaniard (which was always part of the Highland dreſs), ſeems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purſe, richly adorned with ſilver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dreſs.

The dreſs of the Highland women conſiſted of a petticoat and jerkin, with ſtrait ſleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held cloſe under their chins with the hand, or faſtened with a buckle of a particular faſhion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The women's plaid has been but lately diſuſed in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoſo may find a ſtrong reſemblance between the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the Scots, and thoſe of the Tuſcans (who were unqueſtionably of Celtic original) as they are to be ſeen in the monuments of antiquity.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dreſs rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the government. Many efforts had been made by the legiſlature, after the rebellion in 1715, to diſarm them, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dreſſes. The diſarming ſcheme was the moſt ſucceſsful; for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had ſcarcely any other arms than thoſe which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden rendered it no difficult matter for the legiſlature to force them into a total change of their dreſs. Its conveniency, however, for the purpoſes of the field, is ſo great, that ſome of the Highland regiments ſtill retain it. Even the common people have of late reſumed the uſe of it; and for its lightneſs and the freedom it gives to the body, many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the ſummer time.

The dreſs of the higher and middle ranks of the Low-country differs little or nothing from the Engliſh; but many of the peaſantry ſtill retain the bonnet, for the cheapneſs and lightneſs of the wear. The dreſs of the women of all ranks is much the ſame in both kingdoms, but not ſo as to their neatneſs, and the cleanlineſs of the female ſervants.

I have already mentioned the language of the Highlanders, eſpecially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, to be radically Celtic. The Engliſh ſpoken by the Scots, notwithſtanding its provincial articulations, which are as frequent there as in the more ſouthern counties, is written in the ſame manner in both kingdoms. At preſent the pronunciation of a Scotchman is greatly improving, and, with ſome, does not differ from the pronunciation of a Londoner, more than that of a Londoner does from an inhabitant of Somerſetſhire, and ſome parts of Worceſterſhire.

PUNISHMENTS.] Theſe are pretty much the ſame in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an inſtrument called the Maiden; the model of which, it is well known, was brought from Halifax in England, to Scotland, by the regent, earl Morton, and it was firſt uſed for the execution of himſelf.

RELIGION.] Ancient Scottiſh hiſtorians, with Bede and other writers, generally agree that chriſtianity was firſt taught in Scotland by ſome of the diſciples of St. John the Apoſtle, who fled to this northern corner to avoid the perſecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publicly profeſſed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scotch hiſtorians called Donald the Firſt, his queen, and ſeveral of his nobles, were ſolemnly baptiſed. It was farther confirmed by

emigrations from South Britain, during the perſecutions of Aurelius and Dioclesian, when it became the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who ſeem to have been the firſt regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed by overſeers or biſhops choſen by themſelves, from among their own body, and who had no pre-eminence of rank over the reſt of their brethren.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, chriſtianity ſeems to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed in Scotland as a national church, where it flouriſhed in its native ſimplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a prieſt ſent by the biſhop of Rome in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romiſh church, which at length prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that darkneſs which for ages overſpread Europe; though their dependence upon the pope was very ſlender, when compared to the blind ſubjection of many other nations.

The Culdees, however, long retained their original manners, and remained a diſtinct order, notwithſtanding the oppreſſion of the Romiſh clergy, ſo late as the age of Robert Bruce in the 14th century, when they diſappeared. But it is worthy of obſervation, that the oppoſition to popery in this iſland, though it ceaſed in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the ſame age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner, in the work of reformation, to John Huſs and Jerom of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther and John Calvin. But though the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the 16th century, and the age ſeemed greatly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for that great revolution; and the finiſhing blow to popery in England was reſerved to the age of Henry VIII.

Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts, and ſciences, began to revive in Europe, the abſurdities of the church of Rome, as well as the profligate lives of her clergy, did not eſcape the notice of a free and inquiring people, but gave riſe to the reformation in Scotland. It began in the reign of James V. made great progreſs under that of his daughter Mary, and was at length completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and in a degree was the apoſtle of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that, upon the abolition of the Roman catholic religion, they were to ſucceed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility, who had parcelled out thoſe poſſeſſions for themſelves, did not at firſt diſcourage this notion; but no ſooner had Knox ſucceeded in his deſigns, which through the fury of the mob deſtroyed ſome of the fineſt eccleſiaſtical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopoliſed all the church livings, and moſt ſcandalouſly left the reformed clergy to live almoſt in a ſtate of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any great ſtruggle or alteration in their favour.

The nobility and great landholders left the doctrine and diſcipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding times rendered the preſbyterian clergy of vaſt importance to the ſtate; and their revenues have been ſo much mended, that, though no ſtipend there exceeds 150l. a year, few fall ſhort of 60l. and none of 50l. If the preſent expenſive mode of living continues in Scotland, the eſtabliſhed clergy will have many unanſwerable reaſons to urge for the increaſe of their revenues

The bounds of this work do not admit of entering at large upon the doctrinal and œconomical part of the church of Scotland. It is ſufficient

to ſay that its firſt principle is a parity of eccleſiaſtical authority among all its preſbyters; that it agrees in its cenſures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of oppoſition to popery; but that it is modelled principally after the Calviniſtical plan eſtabliſhed at Geneva. This eſtabliſhment, at various periods, proved ſo tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the greater and leſſer excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of eſtate, and ſometimes life, that the kirk ſeſſions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who were extremely jealous of their being revived. It is ſaid, that even that relique of popery, the obliging fornicators of both ſexes to ſit upon what they call a repenting ſtool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out; it having been found, that the Scotch women, on account of that penance, were the greateſt infanticides in the world. In ſhort, the power of the Scotch clergy is at preſent very moderate, or at leaſt very moderately exerciſed; nor are they accountable for the extravagancies of their predeceſſors. They have been, ever ſince the Revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the houſe of Hanover, and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dreſs without clerical robes; but ſome of them appear in the pulpit in gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands. They make no uſe of ſet forms in worſhip, but are not prohibited that of the Lord's Prayer. The rents of the biſhops, ſince the abolition of epiſcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purpoſes. A thouſand pounds a year is always ſent by his majeſty for the uſe of proteſtant ſchools erected by act of Parliament in North Britain, and the Weſtern Iſles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the ſupport of their widows and orphans. The number of pariſhes in Scotland are eight hundred and ninety, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is ſerved by more than one miniſter.

The higheſt eccleſiaſtical authority in Scotland is the general aſſembly, which we may call the eccleſiaſtical parliament of Scotland. It conſiſts of commiſſioners, ſome of whom are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from preſbyteries, royal burghs, and univerſities. A preſbytery, conſiſting of under twelve miniſters, ſends two miniſters and one ruling elder; if it contains between twelve and eighteen miniſters, it ſends three, and one ruling elder: if it contains between eighteen and twenty-four miniſters, it ſends four miniſters and two ruling elders; but if the preſbytery has twenty-four miniſters, it ſends five miniſters and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh ſends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whoſe election muſt be atteſted by the reſpective kirk ſeſſions of their own burghs. Every univerſity ſends one commiſſioner, uſually a miniſter of their own body. Theſe commiſſioners are choſen yearly, ſix weeks before the meeting of the aſſembly. The ruling elders are often of the firſt quality of the country.

The king preſides by his commiſſioner (who is always a nobleman) in this aſſembly, which meets once a year: but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceedings is regular, though the number of members often creates a confuſion, which the moderator, who is choſen by them to be as it were ſpeaker of the houſe, has not ſufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other eccleſiaſtical courts in Scotland to the general aſſembly; and no appeal lies from its determination in religious matters.

Provincial ſynods are next in authority to the general aſſembly. They are compoſed of a number of the adjacent preſbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reverſible by the general aſſembly.

Subordinate

Subordinate to the ſynods, are preſbyteries, ſixty-nine of which are in Scotland, each conſiſting of a number of contiguous pariſhes. The miniſters of theſe pariſhes, with one ruling elder, choſen half yearly out of every ſeſſion, compoſes a preſbytery. Theſe preſbyteries meet in the head town of that diviſion, but have no juriſdiction beyond their own bounds, though within theſe they have cogniſance of all eccleſiaſtical cauſes and matters. A chief part of their buſineſs is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and ſolemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or preſent in ſix months after a vacancy; otherwiſe the preſbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk ſeſſion is the loweſt eccleſiaſtic judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own pariſh. The members conſiſt of the miniſters, elders and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act pretty much as churchwardens do in England, by having the ſuperintendency of the poor, and taking care of other parochial affairs. The elder, or, as he is called, the ruling elder, is a place of great parochial truſt, and he is generally a lay-perſon of quality or intereſt in the pariſh. They are ſuppoſed to act in a kind of co-ordinacy with the miniſter, and to be aſſiſting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechiſing, viſiting the ſick, and at the communion table.

The office of miniſters, or preaching preſbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling elders; they alone can preach, adminiſter the ſacraments, catechiſe, pronounce church cenſures, ordain deacons and ruling-elders, aſſiſt at the impoſition of hands upon other miniſters, and moderate or preſide in all eccleſiaſtical judicatories.

It has already been obſerved, that the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland is preſbyterian; that it was formerly of a rigid nature, and partook of all the auſterities of Calviniſm, and of too much of the intolerance of popery: but at preſent it is mild and gentle; and the ſermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines are equally diſtinguiſhed by good ſenſe and moderation. It is to be wiſhed, however, that this moderation was not too often interrupted by the fanaticiſm not only of lay ſeceders, but of regular miniſters. Theſe are induſtrious to fix upon the abſurdities of former divines and viſionaries, and eccleſiaſtical ordinances and diſcipline, which were ſuppoſed to be incompatible with the nature of government. A vaſt number of theſe ſeceding congregations are to be found in the Lowlands. They maintain their own preachers, though ſcarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other. We do not, however, find that they fly in the face of the civil power; or at leaſt the inſtances are rare and inconſiderable: and perhaps many of theſe *ſeceſſions* are lawful, or to be juſtified on account of the great abuſes of patronages, by which many pariſhes have unworthy or incapable miniſters impoſed upon them, as is the caſe in many places in England.

A different ſet of diſſenters, in Scotland, conſiſt of the epiſcopalians, a few quakers, many baptiſts, and other ſectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Epiſcopacy, from the time of the Reſtoration in 1660, to that of the Revolution in 1688, was the eſtabliſhed church of Scotland; and would probably have continued ſo, had not the biſhops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refuſed to recogniſe king William's title. The partiſans of that unhappy prince retained the epiſcopal religion: and king William's government was rendered ſo unpopular in Scotland, that, in queen Anne's time, the epiſcopalians were more numerous in ſome parts than the preſbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under

the

the act of toleration, as well attended. A Scotch epiſcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received ſome checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themſelves ſo well, that at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous, after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, ſtill ſubſiſt, but thinly. In the mean while, the decline of the nonjurors is far from having ſuppreſſed epiſcopacy in Scotland; the Engliſh biſhops ſupply them with clergy qualified according to law, whoſe chapels are chiefly filled by the Engliſh, and ſuch Scotch hearers of that perſuaſion as have places under the government.

The defection of ſome great families from the cauſe of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries inconſiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the iſlands: and though a violent oppoſition was lately raiſed againſt them, fearing their liberties were about to be enlarged, they appear to be as quiet and inoffenſive as proteſtant ſubjects.

Scotland, during the time of epiſcopacy, contained two archbiſhoprics, St. Andrew's and Glaſgow; and twelve biſhoprics, Edinburgh, Dunkeld,, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Roth, Caithneſs, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Iſles.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer to the literary hiſtory of Europe for 1400 years paſt. The weſtern parts and iſles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apoſtle of Ireland; and many others ſince, whoſe names would make a long article. The writings of Adamnarus, and other authors who lived before and at the time of the Norman invaſion, which are come to our hands, are ſpecimens of their learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, moſt unqueſtionably held a correſpondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he formed a famous league; and employed Scotchmen in planning, ſettling and ruling his favourite univerſities, and other ſeminaries of learning in France, Italy, and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a ſeeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philoſopher, and hiſtorian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flouriſhed in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure Engliſh as that bard, and his verſification is perhaps more harmonious. The deſtruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity has rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin ſtyle of Buchanan's hiſtory is to this day the moſt claſſical of all modern productions. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes are incomparably the fineſt compoſitions of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbariſms of thoſe ſent them in anſwer. This has been conſidered as a proof that claſſical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland, than at any other in Europe.

The diſcovery of the logarithms, a diſcovery which in point of ingenuity and utility may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indiſputable right of Napier of Merchiſtone. And ſince his time, the mathematical ſciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great ſucceſs. Keil, in his phyſico-mathematical works, to the clearneſs of his reaſoning has added the colouring of a poet; which is the more remarkable, not only as the ſubject is little ſuſceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. Of all writers on aſtronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the moſt perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of ſir Iſaac Newton, was endowed with all that preciſion and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehenſions,

henſions, and for diffuſing that light through the world, which Newton had confined within the ſphere of the learned. His Treatiſe on Fluxions is regarded by the beſt judges in Europe, as the cleareſt account of the moſt refined and ſubtile ſpeculations on which the human mind ever exerted itſelf with ſucceſs. While Maclaurin purſued this new career, a geometrician no leſs famous diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the ſame, but almoſt deſerted, tract of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simpſon, ſo well known over Europe for his illuſtration of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, and above all, his Conic Sections, are ſufficient of themſelves to eſtabliſh the ſcientific reputation of his native country.

This, however, does not reſt on the character of a few mathematicians and aſtronomers: the fine arts have been called ſiſters, to denote their affinity. There is the ſame connection between the ſciences, particularly thoſe which depend on obſervation. Mathematics, and phyſics, properly ſo called, were, in Scotland, accompanied by the other branches of ſtudy to which they are allied. In medicine particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie, Whytt, Cullen, and Gregory, hold a diſtinguiſhed place.

Nor have the Scots been unſucceſsful in cultivating the belles lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderneſs and feeling, are aſtoniſhed at the poetic genius and delicate ſenſibility of Thomſon.

But of all literary purſuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and reſpect. The philoſophy of Dr. Hutcheſon, not to mention other works more ſubtile and elegant, but leſs convincing and leſs inſtructive deſerves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who would wiſh to practiſe it. Next to Locke's Eſſay on the Human Underſtanding, it is perhaps the beſt diſſection of the human mind that hath appeared in modern times; and it is likewiſe the moſt uſeful ſupplement to that Eſſay.

It would be endleſs to mention all the individuals who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the various branches of literature; particularly as thoſe who are alive (ſome of them in high eſteem for hiſtorical compoſition) diſpute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with laurels, which neither envy can blaſt, nor time can deſtroy.

UNIVERSITIES] The univerſities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrews *, founded in 1411.—Glaſgow †, 1454.—Aberdeen ||, 1477.—And Edinburgh ‡, 1582.

It

* St Andrews has a Chancellor, two Principals, and eleven Profeſſors in

Greek,	Moral Philoſophy,	Church Hiſtory,
Humanity,	Natural Philoſophy,	Divinity,
Hebrew,	Mathematics,	Medicine.
Logic,	Civil Hiſtory,	

† Glaſgow has a Chancellor, Rector, Dean of Faculty, Principal, and fourteen Profeſſors in

Greek,	Moral Philoſophy,	Divinity,
Humanity,	Natural Philoſophy,	Civil and Scotch Law,
Hebrew,	Mathematics,	Medicine,
Oriental Languages,	Practical Aſtronomy,	Anatomy.
Logic,	Hiſtory,	

‖ Aberdeen has properly two Colleges, viz. King's College, and Mariſchal College.

King's College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and ſeven Profeſſors in

Greek,	Philoſophy,	Civil Law,
Humanity,	Divinity,	Medicine.
Oriental Languages,		

Mariſchal

It is with pleaſure we inform our readers, that a conſiderable progreſs has been made in the erection of a new univerſity at Edinburgh, to which our moſt gracious ſovereign has been a very liberal benefactor. This edifice promiſes to be a noble monument of national taſte and ſpirit.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally takes the lead in this diviſion, which the bounds of our work oblige us to contract. The caſtle, before the uſe of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable by force. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whoſe territory reached to the Frith of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the caſtle; and a more inconvenient ſituation for a capital can ſcarcely be conceived; the High ſtreet, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying eaſt and weſt; and the lanes running down its ſides north and ſouth. In former times, the town was ſurrounded by water, excepting towards the eaſt; ſo that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guiſe, they gave it the name of Liſlebourg. This ſituation ſuggeſted the idea of building very lofty houſes divided into ſtories, each of which contains a ſuite of rooms, generally large and commodious, for the uſe of a family; ſo that the High-ſtreet of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn ſtone, broad, and well paved, makes a moſt auguſt appearance, eſpecially as it riſes a full mile in a direct line and gradual aſcent from the palace of Holyrood-houſe on the eaſt, and is terminated on the weſt by the rude majeſty of its caſtle, built upon a lofty rock, inacceſſible on all ſides, except where it joins to the city. The caſtle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a moſt extenſive proſpect of the river Forth, the ſhipping, the oppoſite coaſt of Fife, and even ſome hills at the diſtance of 40 or 50 miles, which border upon the Highlands. This crowded population, however, was ſo ſhockingly inconvenient, that the Engliſh, who ſeldom went farther into the country, returned with the deepeſt impreſſion of Scotch naſtineſs, which became proverbial. The caſtle has ſome good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammunition, but contains the regalia, which were depoſited here under the moſt ſolemn legal inſtruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at preſent of thoſe regalia, is contained in the inſtrument which was taken at the time of their being depoſited, where they are fully deſcribed.

Facing the caſtle, as I have already obſerved, at a mile's diſtance, ſtands the abbey, or rather palace of Holy-rood-houſe. The inner quadrangle of

Mariſchal College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and ſeven Profeſſors in

Greek,
Oriental Languages,
Moral Philoſophy and Logic,
Natural Philoſophy,
Mathematics,
Divinity,
Medicine.

† Edinburgh has a Patron, Principal, and Profeſſors in

Divinity,
Church Hiſtory,
Greek,
Humanity,
Hebrew,
Logic,
Moral Philoſophy,
Natural Philoſophy,
Mathematics,
Civil Hiſtory,
Natural Hiſtory,
Scotch Law,
Civil law,
Law of Nature and Nations,
Rhetoric and Belles Lettres,
Botany,
Mate in Medica,
Inſt. of Phyſic and Medicine,
Practice of Medicine,
Chemiſtry,
Anatomy,
Midwifry.

this

this palace, begun by James V. and finished by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan, and under the direction of sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one of the greatest architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilasters: and the inside contains magnificent apartments for the duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and for other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, some of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern hands, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have made great improvements about this palace; for at present nothing can be more uncomfortable than its situation, at the bottom of bleak, unimproved crags and mountains, with scarcely a single tree in its neighbourhood. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it stood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a most elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rooms of stone galleries, supported with curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inside was demolished and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repositories of the dead, and discovered a vault till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his first queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this ancient chapel gave way and fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occasioned by the enormous weight of a new stone roof, laid over it some years before, which the walls were unable to support.

The hospital, founded by George Herriot, goldsmith to James VI. commonly called Herriot's Work, stands to the south-west of the castle, in a noble situation. It is the finest and most regular specimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI.) has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be seen in England. One Balcanquhille, a divine, whom Herriot left his executor, is said to have prevailed upon Jones to admit some barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have insisted that the ornaments of each should be somewhat different from those of the others. It is, notwithstanding, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradesmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magistrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh, before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of an university, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magistrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be said of its buildings, which were calculated for the sober literary manners of those days; they are, however, improvable, and may be rendered elegant. What is of far more importance, it is supplied with excellent professors in the several branches of learning; and its schools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which is said to have been of late greatly augmented, and a museum belonging to it was given by sir Andrew Balfour, a physician. It contains several natural, and some literary curiosities, which one would little expect to find at Edinburgh.

The Parliament Square, or, as it is there called, Close, was formerly the most ornamental part of this city: it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which consists in lofty buildings: and in the middle is a

fine

fine equeſtrian ſtatue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-houſe, though not ſo large, is better proportioned than Weſtminſter-hall; and its roof, though executed in the ſame manner, has been by good judges held to be ſuperior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a ſingle judge, called the lord ordinary, preſides by rotation: in a room near it, ſit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, ſhrievalty, and magiſtracy of Edinburgh; and the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at firſt entirely founded and furniſhed by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains are amazing; and the collection has been made with exquiſite taſte and judgment. It contains likewiſe the moſt valuable manuſcript remains of the Scotch hiſtory, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a ſeries of medals. Adjoining the library, is the room where the public records are kept; but both it, and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are miſerably dark and diſmal. It is ſaid that preparations are now carrying on. for lodging both the books and papers in rooms far better ſuited to their importance and value.

The High Church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into four churches, and a room where the general aſſembly ſits. It is a large Gothic building, and its ſteeple is ſurmounted by arches, formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect to the eye. The churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, contain little but what is common to ſuch buildings; but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deſerves particular attention.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, ſuch as the exchange, public offices, its hoſpitals, bridges, and the like, demonſtrate the vaſt improvement of the taſte of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have almoſt completed a new town, upon a plan which does honour to the preſent age. The ſtreets and ſquares are laid out with the utmoſt regularity, and the houſes are built with ſtone, in an elegant taſte, with all the conveniences that render thoſe of England ſo delightful and commodious. The fronts of ſome are ſuperbly finiſhed in all the beauties of architecture, diſplaying at the ſame time the judgment of the builder, and the public ſpirit of the proprietor.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, which, agreeable to the original plan, was to have been formed into a ſheet of water, bordered by a terrace walk, and the aſcent towards the new town covered with pleaſure gardens, ſhrubberies, &c. But this elegant deſign fell to nothing, through the narrow ideas of the magiſtrates, who, finding greater benefits by letting the ground to inferior tradeſmen, upon building leaſes, this ſpot, formed by nature as an agreeable opening to a crowded city, became a nuiſance to thoſe gentlemen who had been ſo liberal in ornamenting the buildings upon the ſummit. A deciſion of the houſe of lords (in which a certain great luminary of the law, equally diſtinguiſhed for his taſte and good ſenſe, heartily concurred) put a ſtop to theſe mean erections. At the weſt, or upper end of this vale, the caſtle, a ſolid rock not leſs than twenty ſtories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eaſtern extremity is bounded by a ſtriking object of art, a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the deſcent on each ſide the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages.

riages. I am the more particular in deſcribing this place, that the reader may form ſome idea of its pleaſant ſituation, ſtanding on an eminence, with a gentle declivity on each ſide, in the heart of a rich country; the view ſouthward, that of a romantic city, its more romantic caſtle, and diſtant hills riſing to an amazing height; while the proſpect northward gives full ſcope to the eye, pleaſes the imagination, and fills the mind with ſuch ideas as the works of nature alone can inſpire. One agreeable proſpect, however, is ſtill wanting, a handſome clean inn or tavern, with a genteel coffee-room, towards the ſide which overlooks the Forth; and which might eaſily be accompliſhed by ſubſcription, and from the great reſort of travellers, could not fail to bring a profitable return.

Edinburgh may be conſidered, notwithſtanding its caſtle, and an open wall which incloſes it on the ſouth ſide, of a very modern fabric, but in the Roman manner, as an open town; ſo that in fact it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it againſt the rebels, who took poſſeſſion of it in 1745. Edinburgh contains a playhouſe, which has now the ſanction of an act of parliament; and concerts, aſſemblies, balls, muſic-meetings, and other polite amuſements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majeſty's dominions, London and Bath excepted.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provoſt, four bailies, a dean of guild, and a treaſurer, annually choſen from the common-council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooſes its own deacon, and here are 14; namely, ſurgeons, goldſmiths, ſkinners, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, maſons, tailors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet makers. The lord-provoſt is colonel of the town-guard, a military inſtitution to be found in no part of his majeſty's dominions but at Edinburgh; they ſerve for the city-watch, and patrol the ſtreets, are uſeful in ſuppreſſing ſmall commotions, and attend the execution of ſentences upon delinquents. They are divided into three companies, and wear an uniform; they are immediately commanded by three officers under the name of captains. Beſides this guard, Edinburgh raiſes ſixteen companies of trained bands, which ſerve as militia. The revenues of the city conſiſt chiefly of that tax which is now common in moſt of the bodies corporate in Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two-thirds of a farthing, laid on every Scotch pint of ale (containing two Engliſh quarts) conſumed within the precincts of the city. This is a moſt judicious impoſt, as it renders the pooreſt people inſenſible of the burthen. Its product, however, has been ſufficient to defray the expenſe of ſupplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes at the diſtance of four miles; of erecting reſervoirs, enlarging the harbour Leith, and completing other public works, of great expence and utility.

Leith, though near two miles diſtant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the ſame juriſdiction. It contains nothing remarkable but the remains of two citadels (if they are not the ſame), which were fortified and bravely defended by the French, under Mary of Guiſe, againſt the Engliſh, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble ſeats, which are daily increaſing: ſome of them yield to few in England; but they are too numerous to be particulariſed here. I cannot however avoid mentioning the earl of Abercorn's, a ſhort way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's houſe at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopetoun-houſe, ſo called from the earl its owner. About four

miles

miles from Edinburgh is Roſlin, noted for a ſtately Gothic chapel, counted one of the moſt curious pieces of workmanſhip in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glaſgow, in the ſhire of Lanerk, ſituated on a gentle declivity ſloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles weſt of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the ſecond city of Scotland, and, conſidering its ſize, the firſt in Great Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The ſtreets croſs each other at right angles, and are broad, ſtraight, well paved, and conſequently clean. The houſes make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five ſtories high, and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are ſupported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern built churches are in the fineſt ſtyle of architecture: and the cathedral is a ſtupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which ſtands above another, and is furniſhed with a very fine ſpire ſpringing from a tower: the whole being reckoned a maſterly and matchleſs fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo, or Kentigern, who was biſhop of Glaſgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preſerved from the fury of the rigid reformers by the reſolution of the citizens. The town-houſe is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magiſtrates. The univerſity is eſteemed the moſt ſpacious and beſt built of any in Scotland, and is at preſent in a thriving ſtate. In this city are ſeveral well-endowed hoſpitals; and it is particularly well ſupplied with large and convenient inns, proper for the accommodation of ſtrangers of any rank. They have lately built a handſome bridge acroſs the river Clyde; but our bounds do not allow us to particulariſe that, and the other public-ſpirited undertakings of this city carrying on by the inhabitants, who do honour to the benefits ariſing from their vaſt commerce, both foreign and internal, which they carry on with amazing ſucceſs. In Glaſgow are ſeven churches, and eight or ten meeting-houſes for ſectaries of various denominations. The number of its inhabitants have been eſtimated at 50,000.

Aberdeen bids fair to be the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a ſhire, to which it gives its name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is the ſhire town, and evidently built for the purpoſe of commerce. It is a large well-built city, and has a good quay, or tide-harbour; in it are three churches, and ſeveral epiſcopal meeting-houſes, a conſiderable degree of foreign commerce and much ſhipping, a well-frequented univerſity, and above 12,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile diſtant, though almoſt joined to the New by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other; it is a moderately large market town, but has no haven. In each of theſe two places there is a well-endowed college, both together being termed the univerſity of Aberdeen, although quite independent of each other.

Perth, the capital town of Perthſhire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic; is finely ſituated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the moſt fertile ſpots in Great-Britain, called the Carſe of Gowry. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 10,000 inhabitants: it lies near the mouth of the river Tay; it is a town of conſiderable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to ſundry foreign parts; and has three churches. Montroſe, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, lie in the ſame

ſame county of Angus: the firſt has a great and flouriſhing foreign trade, and the manufacturers of the other two are upon the thriving hand.

It may be neceſſary again to put the reader in mind, that I write with great uncertainty with regard to the population of Scotland, on account of its improving ſtate. I have rather under than over-rated the number of inhabitants in the towns I have mentioned. Edinburgh certainly contains more than 60,000 ſouls, which is the computation to which I all along confoma myſelf; but the influx of people, and the increaſe of matrimony in proportion to that of property, muſt create great alterations for the better, and few for the worſe, becauſe the inhabitants who are diſpoſed to induſtry may always find employment. This uncertainty is the reaſon why I omit a particular deſcription of Dumfries, Air, Greenock, Paiſley, Stirling, and about fifty other burghs and towns of very conſiderable trade in Scotland. But great allowances are to be made on the other hand, for the large emigrations of many to England, America, the Weſt and Eaſt Indies, for new ſettlements.

The ancient Scots valued themſelves upon truſting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country. This was a maxim more heroical perhaps than prudent, as they have often experienced: and, indeed, at this day, their forts would make but a ſorry figure, if regularly attacked. The caſtles of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dumbarton, formerly thought places of great ſtrength, could not hold out 48 hours if beſieged by 6000 regular troops, with proper artillery. Fort William, which lies in the Weſt Highlands, is ſufficient to bridle the inhabitants of that neighbourhood; as are Fort George, and Fort Auguſtus, in the north and north-weſt: but none of them can be conſidered as defences againſt a foreign enemy.

I ſhall not pretend to enter upon a deſcription of the noble edifices that, within the courſe of this and the laſt century, have been erected for private perſons in Scotland, becauſe they are ſo numerous that to particulariſe them exceeds the bounds of my plan. It is ſufficient to ſay, that many of them are equal to ſome of the moſt ſuperb buildings in England and foreign countries: and the reader's ſurpriſe at this will ceaſe, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture than that of the nobility and gentry of Scotland; and that there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapneſs of materials, where it can be gratified at ſo moderate an expenſe. This may likewiſe account for the ſuperfluous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices, which anciently abounded in Scotland: but at the time of the Reformation they were moſtly demoliſhed, by a furious and tumultuous mob, who, in ſome practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy, exaſperated at the long and ſore ſufferings they had endured from the popiſh party.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The Roman, and other antiquities found in Scotland, have of themſelves furniſhed matter for large volumes. The ſtations of the Roman legions, their caſtella, their pretentures or walls reaching acroſs the iſland, have been traced with great preciſion by antiquaries and hiſtorians; ſo that, without ſome freſh diſcoveries, an account of them could afford no inſtruction to the learned, and but little amuſement to the ignorant; becauſe at preſent they can be diſcovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief, however, may be proper. The courſe of the Roman wall (or as it is called by the country people, *Graham's Dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottiſh warrior of that name firſt broke over it), between the Clyde and Forth, which was firſt marked out by Agricola, and

completed by Antoninus Pius, is ſtill diſcernible, as are ſeveral Roman camps in the neighbourhood*. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a ſtriking remain of Roman antiquity. It is ſituated at Ardoch, in Perthſhire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola, before he fought the bloody battle, ſo well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king Galgacus, who was defeated. Some writers think, that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch was, on account of the numerous Roman coins and inſcriptions found near it, a Roman caſtellum or fort. Be that as it will, it certainly is the moſt entire and beſt preſerved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in North Britain, having no leſs than five rows of ditches and ſix ramparts on the ſouth ſide; and of the four gates which lead into the area, three are very diſtinct and plain, viz. the prætoria, decumana, and dextra.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or of the dome of St. Paul's at London, ſtood upon the banks of the river Carron, in Stirlingſhire, but has been lately barbarouſly demoliſhed, by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpoſe of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the baſe was eighty-eight feet; ſo that upon the whole it was one of the moſt complete Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or ſome of his ſucceſſors, as a temple to the god Terminus, as it ſtood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are ſome artificial conical mounds of earth, which ſtill retain the name of Duni-pace, or Duni-pacis; which ſerve to evidence that there was a kind of ſolemn compromiſe between the Romans and the Caledonians, that the former ſhould not extend their empire farther to the northward.

Innumerable are the coins, urns, utenſils, inſcriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in the different parts of Scotland: ſome of them to the north of the wall, where, however, it does not appear that they made any eſtabliſhment. By the inſcriptions found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of Roman highways are frequent in the ſouthern parts.

Daniſh camps and fortifications are eaſily diſcernible in ſeveral northern counties, and are known by their ſquare figures and difficult ſituations. Some houſes or ſtupendous fabrics remain in Roſs-ſhire; but whether they are Daniſh, Pictiſh, or Scottiſh, does not appear. The elevations of two of them are to be ſeen in Gordon's Itinerarium Septentrionale. I am of opinion that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian ſtructures, and built

* Near the weſtern extremity of this wall, at Duntocher, in Dumbartonſhire, a countryman, in digging a trench on the declivity of a hill, upon which are ſeen the remains of a Roman fort, turned up ſeveral uncommon tiles, which exciting the curioſity of the peaſantry in that neighbourhood, it was not long before they broke in upon an entire ſubterraneous building, from which they dug out a cart-load of theſe materials. A gentleman, who was then upon a journey through that part of Scotland, found means upon the ſecond day, to ſtop all farther proceedings, in hopes that ſome public-ſpirited perſons would, by taking off the ſurface, explore the whole without demoliſhing it. The tiles are of ſeven different ſizes; the ſmalleſt being ſeven, and the largeſt twenty-one inches ſquare. They are from two to three inches in thickneſs, of a reddiſh colour, and in a perfectly ſound condition. The leſſer ones compoſed ſeveral rows of pillars, which form a labyrinth of paſſages about eighteen inches ſquare; and the larger tiles being laid over the whole, ſerve as a roof to ſupport the earth above, which is found to be two feet in depth. The building is ſurrounded by a ſubterraneous wall of hewn ſtone. The bones and teeth of animals, with a ſooty kind of earth, were found in the paſſages: from which ſome have conjectured this building to have been occupied as a hot-bed for the uſe of the neigbouring garriſon.

about

about the fifth century, to favour the deſcents of that people upon thoſe coaſts.

Two Pictiſh monuments, as they are thought to be, of a very extraordinary conſtruction, were lately ſtanding in Scotland; one of them at Abernethy in Perthſhire, the other at Brechin in Angus; both of them are columns, hollow in the inſide, and without the ſtair caſe; that of Brechin is the moſt entire, being covered at the top with a ſpiral roof of ſtone, with three or four windows above the cornice: it conſiſts of ſixty regular courſes of hewn free-ſtone, laid circularly, and regularly tapering towards the top. If theſe columns are really Pictiſh, that people muſt nave had among them architects that far exceeded thoſe of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman ſtyle of architecture. It is, however, difficult to aſſign them to any but the Picts, as they ſtand in their dominions; and ſome ſculptures upon that at Brechin, denote it to be of Chriſtian origin. It is not indeed impoſſible that theſe ſculptures are of a later date. Beſides theſe two pillars, many other Pictiſh buildings are found in Scotland, but not of the ſame taſte.

The veſtiges of erections by the ancient Scots themſelves, are not only curious but inſtructive, as they regard many important events of their hiſtory. That people had amongſt them a rude notion of ſculpture, in which they tranſmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obeliſks are ſtill to be ſeen, called the Daniſh ſtones of Aberlemno. They are erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horſe-back, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, not inteiligible at this day, but minutely deſcribed by Mr. Gordon. Many other hiſtorical monuments of the Scots may be diſcovered on the like occaſions: but it muſt be acknowledged, that the obſcurity of their ſculptures has encouraged a field of boundleſs and frivolous conjectures, ſo that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. It would, however, be unpardonable, if I ſhould neglect to mention the ſtone near the town of Forreſs, or Fortroſe, in Murray, which far ſurpaſſes all the others in magnificence and grandeur, "and is (ſays Mr. Gordon) perhaps one of the moſt ſtately monuments of that kind in Europe. It riſes about 23 feet in height above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no leſs than 12 or 15 feet below; ſo that the whole height is at leaſt 35 feet, and its breadth near 5. It is all one ſingle and entire ſtone; great variety of figures in relievo are carved thereon, and ſome of them ſtill diſtinct and viſible; but the injury of the weather has obſured thoſe towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Daniſh, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulſion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their laſt ſettlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm, a few years before the Norman invaſion.

At Sandwick, in Roſs-ſhire, is a very ſplendid ancient obeliſk, ſurrounded at the baſe with large, well-cut flag ſtones, formed like ſteps. Both ſides of the column are covered with various enrichments, in well-finiſhed carved work. The one face preſents a ſumptuous croſs, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and ſome uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central diviſion on the reverſe exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and animals.

The ruins of the cathedral of Elgin are very ſtriking; and many parts of that fine building have ſtill the remains of much grandeur and dig-

nity in them. The weſt door is highly ornamented; there is much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice diſplays very elaborate workmanſhip.

Among the remains of ancient caſtles, may be mentioned Kildrumy caſtle in the north of Scotland, which was formerly a place of great ſtrength and magnificence, and often uſed as an aſylum to noble families in periods of civil war. Inverugie caſtle, the ancient ſeat of the earl marefchals of Scotland, is alſo a large and lofty pile, ſituated on a ſteep bank of the river; two very high towers bound the front, and even in their decaying ſtate, give the caſtle an air of much grandeur and antiquity. Vaſt rows of venerable trees, incloſing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the decayed buildings. Near the town of Huntly are the ruins of Huntly caſtle. On the avenue that leads to it, are two large ſquare towers, which had defended the gateway. The caſtle ſeems to be very old, and a great part of it is demoliſhed; but there is a maſſy building of a more modern date, in which ſome of the apartments, and in particular their curious ceilings, are ſtill in tolerable preſervation. They are painted with a great variety of ſubjects, in ſmall diviſions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

Beſides theſe remains of Roman, Pictiſh, Daniſh, and Scottiſh antiquities, many Druidical monuments and temples are diſcernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the iſles, where we may ſuppoſe that paganiſm took its laſt refuge. They are eaſily perceived by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are ſo ſtupendous as the Druidical erections in South Britain. There is in Perthſhire a barrow which ſeems to be a Britiſh erection, and the moſt beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world. It exactly reſembles the figure of a ſhip with the keel uppermoſt. The common people call it Tiernay, which ſome interpret to be *terræ navis*, the ſhip of earth. It ſeems to be of the moſt remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of ſome Britiſh prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles diſtant from the great ſcene of Agricola's operations.

The traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finehaven is one inſtance; and the hill of Bergonium near Dunſtaffage caſtle, is another, yielding vaſt quantities of punices or ſcoriæ of different kinds, many of which are of the ſame ſpecies with thoſe of the Iceiandic volcanoes. Among other natural curioſities of this country, mention is made of a heap of white ſtones, moſt of them clear like cryſtal, together with great plenty of oyſter and other ſea ſhells; they are found on the top of a mountain called Skorna Lappich, in Roſs-ſhire, twenty miles diſtant from the ſea. Slams, in Aberdeenſhire, is ſaid to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping Cave, where water oozing through a ſpongy porous rock at the top, doth quickly conſolidate after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curioſities belonging to Scotland have their deſcriptions and hiſtories; but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vaniſh when they are ſkilfully examined. Some caverns that are to be found in Fifeſhire, and are probably natural, are of extraordinary dimenſions, and have been the ſcenes of inhuman cruelties.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] In theſe reſpects Scotland has, for ſome years paſt, been in a very improving ſtate. Without entering into the diſputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take poſſeſſion of Darien, and to carry on the Eaſt and Weſt India trade, was founded

upon true principles of commerce, and (ſo far as it went) executed with a noble ſpirit of enterpriſe. The miſcarriage of that ſcheme, after receiving the higheſt and moſt ſolemn ſanctions, is a diſgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, independent, and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the long languor of the Scottiſh commerce, and many other misfortunes which that country ſuſtained, by the diſguſt the inhabitants conceived on that account, and ſome invaſions of their rights afterwards, which they thought inconſiſtent with the articles of union. The entails and narrow ſettlements of family eſtates, and ſome remains of the feudal inſtitutions, might contribute to the ſame cauſe.

Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the adminiſtration in England, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the firſt miniſter who diſcovered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more conſiderable object of governmental inquiry than ever. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragements granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his adminiſtration, made them ſenſible of their own importance. Mr. Pitt, a ſucceeding miniſter, purſued Mr. Pelham's wiſe plan, and juſtly boaſted in parliament, that he availed himſelf of the courage, good ſenſe, and ſpirit of the Scots, in carrying on the moſt extenſive war that ever Great Britain was engaged in. Let me add, to the honour of the Britiſh government, that the Scots have been ſuffered to avail themſelves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or poſterior acts of parliament.

This is manifeſt from the extenſive trade they lately carried on with the Britiſh ſettlements in America and the Weſt Indies, and with all the nations to which the Engliſh themſelves trade; ſo that the increaſe of their ſhipping within theſe thirty years paſt has been very conſiderable. The exports of thoſe ſhips are compoſed chiefly of Scottiſh manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the ſoil, and the induſtry of its inhabitants. In exchange for theſe, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, ſugar, and rum, from the Britiſh plantations; and from other countries, their products, to the immenſe ſaving of their nation. The proſperity of Glaſgow and its neighbourhood hath been greatly owing to the connection and trade with Virginia and the Weſt Indies.

The fiſheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coaſts, for they have a great concern in the whale-fiſhery carried on upon the coaſt of Spitſbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government allows them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of ſhipping employed in that article. The late improvement of their fiſheries, which I have already mentioned, and which are daily increaſing, opens inexhauſtible funds of wealth; their cured fiſh being, by foreigners, and the Engliſh planters in America, preferred to thoſe of Newfoundland.

The buſſes, or veſſels employed in the great herring fiſhery on the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-weſt parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring iſlands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port in Argyleſhire, facing the north of Ireland, where ſometimes 300 veſſels have been aſſembled. They clear out on the 12th of September, and muſt return to their different ports by the 13th of January. They are alſo under certain regulations reſpecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. the whole being judiciouſly calculated to promote the beſt of national purpoſes, its ſtrength, and its commerce. But though

the political exiſtence of Great-Britain depends upon the number and bravery of our ſeamen, this noble inſtitution has hitherto proved ruinous to many of thoſe who have embarked in it, and, unleſs vigorouſly ſupported, will end in ſmoke.

To encourage this fiſhery, a bounty of 50s. per ton was granted by parliament; but whether from the inſufficiency of the fund appropriated for this purpoſe, or any other cauſe, the bounty was with-held from year to year, while in the mean time the adventurers were not only ſinking their fortunes, but alſo borrowing to the utmoſt limits of their credit. The bounty has ſince been reduced from 50 to 30s. with the ſtrongeſt aſſurances of its being regularly paid when due. Upon the ſtrength of theſe promiſes they have again embarked in the fiſhery; and it is to be wiſhed, that no conſideration whatever may tend to withdraw an inducement ſo requiſite to place their fiſhery on a permanent footing.

The benefits of theſe fiſheries are perhaps equalled by manufactures carrying on at land; particularly that of iron at Carron, in Stirlingſhire.

Their linen manufactory, notwithſtanding a ſtrong rivalſhip from Ireland, is in a flouriſhing ſtate. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal, if not ſuperior, to any in the world; and the lace fabricated from it has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been ſaid, ſome years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England and the Britiſh plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, Oſnaburghs, inkle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000l. excluſive of their home conſumption; and there is reaſon to believe that the ſum is conſiderably larger at preſent. The Scots are likewiſe making very promiſing efforts for eſtabliſhing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, ſtockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very conſiderable. The Scots, it is true, cannot pretend to rival the Engliſh in their finer cloths; but they make at preſent ſome broad cloth proper for the wear of people of faſhion in an undreſs, and in quality and fineneſs equal to what is commonly called Yorkſhire cloth. Among the other late improvements of the Scots, we are not to forget the vaſt progreſs they have made in working the mines, and ſmelting the ore of their country. Their coal trade to England is well known; and of late they have turned even their ſtones to account, by their contracts for paving the ſtreets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the Engliſh, is now diminiſhed, it is owing to the beſt of national cauſes, that of an increaſe of home conſumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eaſtern ports of the nation; but Glaſgow was the great emporium for the American commerce, before the commencement of the unhappy breach with the colonies. The late junction of the Forth to the Clyde will render the benefits of trade mutual to both parts of Scotland. In ſhort, the more that the ſeas, the ſituation, the ſoil, harbours, and rivers of this country are known, the better adapted it appears for all the purpoſes of commerce, both foreign and domeſtic.

With regard to other manufactures, not mentioned, ſome of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paiſley alone employs an incredible number of hands, in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and ſtriped lawns, which are a reaſonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houſes, glaſs-works of every kind, delft-houſes, and paper-mills, are erected everywhere. The Scotch carpeting makes neat and laſting furniture; and ſome eſſays have been lately made, with no inconſiderable degree of ſucceſs, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as in any part of Europe.

Europe. After all that has been ſaid, many years will be required before the trade and improvements in Scotland can be brought to maturity. In any event they never can give umbrage to the Engliſh, as the intereſts of the two people are, or ought to be, the ſame.

Having ſaid thus much, I cannot avoid obſerving the prodigious diſadvantages under which both the commercial and landed intereſt of Scotland lies from her nobility and great land-holders having too fond an attachment for England, and foreign countries, where they ſpend their ready money. This is one of the evils ariſing to Scotland from the union, which removed the ſeat of her legiſlature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the reſort of volunteer abſentees to that capital. While this partiality ſubſiſts, the Scots will probably continue to be diſtreſſed for a currency of ſpecie. How far paper can ſupply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade; and the evil may, perhaps, be ſomewhat prevented, by money remitted from England for carrying on the vaſt manufactures and works now ſet on foot in Scotland. The gentlemen who reſide in Scotland, have wiſely abandoned French claret and brandy (though too much is ſtill made uſe of in that country), for rum produced in the Britiſh plantations; and their own mait liquors are now come nearly to as great perfection as thoſe in England; and it is ſaid, that they have lately exported large quantities of their ale to London, Dublin, and the plantations.

REVENUES.] See England.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the ſame in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch ſhilling anſwered to about an Engliſh ſixpence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an Engliſh groat. It continued diminiſhing in this manner, till after the union of the two crowns under her ſon James VI. when the vaſt reſort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the Engliſh court, occaſioned ſuch a drain of ſpecie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch ſhilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an Engliſh ſhilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were ſucceeded by bodles, which were double the value of a Scotch penny, and are ſtill current, but are daily wearing out. A Scotch halfpenny was called a babie; ſome ſay, becauſe it was firſt ſtamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only a corruption of two French words *bas piece*, ſignifying a low piece of money. The ſame obſervation that we have made of the Scotch ſhilling, holds of their pounds or marks; which are not coins, but denominations of ſums. In all other reſpects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the ſame, as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order inſtituted, as the Scotch writers aſſert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making an offenſive and defenſive league with Charlemagne, king of France; or as others ſay, on account of his victory over Athelſtan, king of England, when he vowed in the kirk of St. Andrew, that he and his poſterity ſhould ever bear the figure of that croſs in their enſigns on which the ſaint ſuffered. It has been frequently neglected, and as often reſumed. It conſiſts of the ſovereign and 12 companions, who are called Knights of the Thiſtle, and have on their enſign this ſignificant motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſet*, "None ſhall ſafely provoke me."

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] The ancient conſtitution and government in Scotland has been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preſervation of liberty; and it is certain, that the power of the king was

greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the conſtitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his aſſuming or exerciſing a deſpotic authority. But the Scottiſh conſtitution of government was too much of the ariſtocratic kind to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was ſufficiently reſtrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyranniſe over and oppreſs their tenants, and the common people.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promiſes, viz.

"In the name of Chriſt, I promiſe theſe three things to the Chriſtian people my ſubjects: Firſt, that I ſhall give order, and employ my force and aſſiſtance that the church of God, and the Chriſtian people may enjoy true peace during our time under our government. Secondly, I ſhall prohibit and hinder all perſons, of whatever degree, from violence and injuſtice. Thirdly, in all judgments I ſhall follow the preſcriptions of juſtice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may ſhow mercy unto me and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently conſiſted of all who held any portion of land, however ſmall, of the crown, by military ſervice. This parliament appointed the time of its own meetings and adjournments, and committees to ſuperintend the adminiſtration during the intervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commiſſioned ambaſſadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of ſtate and privy-counſellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and reſtrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public buſineſs of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was ſo bounded, that he was not even intruſted with the executive part of the government. And ſo late as the minority of James IV. who was contemporary with, and ſon-in-law to, Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the firſt ſervant of his people; as appears by the act ſtill extant. In ſhort, the conſtitution was rather ariſtocratical than monarchical. The abuſe of theſe ariſtocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king, however, a very conſiderable intereſt among the lower ranks; and a prince who had ſenſe and addreſs to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the moſt overgrown of his ſubjects; but when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. ſhowed a diſreſpect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithſtanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were aſſiſted by the clergy, whoſe revenues were immenſe, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by eſtabliſhing a ſelect body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. Theſe were choſen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgeſſes. The biſhops, for inſtance, choſe eight peers, and the peers eight biſhops; and theſe fifteen jointly chuſe eight barons (or knights of the ſhire), and eight commiſſioners for burghs; and to all thoſe were added eight great officers of ſtate, the chancellor being preſident of the whole.

Their buſineſs was to prepare all queſtions and bills, and other matters brought

brought into parliament; ſo that in fact, though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the places he had to beſtow, always ſure of the lords of the articles, nothing could come into parliament that could cal. for his negative. It muſt be acknowledged, that this inſtitution ſeems to have prevailed by ſtealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular ſyſtem; even its modes varied; and the greateſt lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never loſt ſight of their original principles; and though Charles I. wanted to form theſe lords of the articles into regular machines for his own deſpotic purpoſes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy conſequences are well known. At the Revolution, the Scots gave a freſh inſtance how well they underſtood the principles of liberty, by omitting all pedantic debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have forfeited his crown; which they gave to the prince and princeſs of Orange.

This ſpirit of reſiſtance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the moſt inſupportable miniſterial tyranny ever ſince the Reſtoration. It is aſked, Why did they ſubmit to that tyranny? The anſwer is, in order to preſerve that independency upon England, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to deſtroy, by uniting them with England: they therefore choſe to ſubmit to a temporary evil; but they took the firſt opportunity to get rid of their oppreſſors.

Scotland, when it was a ſeparate kingdom, cannot be ſaid to have had any peers, in the Engliſh ſenſe of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquiſſes, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no diſtinct houſe, for they ſat in the ſame room with the commons, who had the ſame deliberative and deciſive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might ſit upon a lord's aſſize in matters of life and death; nor was it neceſſary for the aſſizers, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal cuſtoms, even at the time of the Reſtoration, were ſo prevalent, and the reſcue of a great criminal was commonly ſo much apprehended, that ſeldom above two days paſſed between the ſentence and execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch hiſtory, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes; a convention, or meeting of the ſtates, only met for the purpoſe of taxation. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four leſſer officers of ſtate; the great were, the lord high chancellor, high treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary: the four leſſer were, the lords regiſter, advocate, treaſurer-depute, and juſtice-clerk. Since the Union none of theſe continue, excepting the lords privy-ſeal, regiſter, advocate, and juſtice clerk; a third ſecretary of ſtate has occaſionally been nominated by the king for Scottiſh affairs, but under the ſame denomination as the other two ſecretaries. The above officers of ſtate ſat in the Scotch parliament by virtue of their offices.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, conſtable, admiral, and marſhal. The offices of conſtable and marſhal were hereditary. A nobleman has ſtill a penſion as admiral; and the office of marſhal is exerciſed by a knight-marſhal.

The office of chancellor of Scotland differed little from the ſame in England. The ſame may be ſaid of the lords treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary. The lord regiſter was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treaſury, exchequer, and ſeſſion, and keeper of all public records. Though this office was only during the king's pleaſure, yet it was very lucrative, by diſpoſing of his deputation, which laſted during life. He acted as

as teller to the parliament: and it was dangerous for any member to dispute his report of the numbers upon diviſion. The lord advocate's office reſembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extenſive; becauſe, by the Scotch laws, he is the proſecutor of all capital crimes before the juſticiary, and likewiſe concurs in all purſuits before ſovereign courts, for breaches of the peace, and alſo in all matters civil, wherein the king or his donator hath intereſt. Two ſolicitors are named by his majeſty, by way of aſſiſtants to the lord-advocate. The office of juſtice-clerk entitles the poſſeſſor to preſide in the criminal court of juſtice, while the juſtice-general, an office I ſhall deſcribe hereafter, is abſent.

The ancient conſtitution of Scotland, admitted of many other offices both of the crown and ſtate; but they are either now extinct, or too inconſiderable to be deſcribed here. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex fœcialium, or grand herald of Scotland, is ſtill in being; and it was formerly an office of great ſplendor and importance, inſomuch that the ſcience of heraldry was preſerved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. He was even crowned ſolemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority, which is not the caſe in England, in all armorial affairs, might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The privy council of Scotland, before the Revolution, had, or aſſumed, inquiſitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now ſunk in the parliament and privy-council of Great Britain; and the civil and criminal cauſes in Scotland are chiefly cogniſable by two courts of judicature.

The firſt is that of the college of juſtice, which was inſtituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to ſupply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took to themſelves the names of the lords of council and ſeſſion, which the preſent members of the college of juſtice ſtill retain. This court conſiſts of a preſident and fourteen ordinary members, beſides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may ſit and vote, but have no ſalaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a ſtanding jury in all matters of property that lie before them. Their forms of proceeding do not lie within my plan, neither does any inquiry how far ſuch an inſtitution, in ſo narrow a country as Scotland, is compatible with the ſecurity of private property. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often matter of ſurpriſe, that the Scots were ſo tenacious of the forms of the courts, and the eſſence of their laws, as to reſerve them by the articles of the Union. This, however, can be eaſily accounted for, becauſe thoſe laws and forms were eſſential to the poſſeſſion of eſtates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. I ſhall juſt add, that the lords of council and ſeſſion act likewiſe as a court of equity; but their decrees are (fortunately perhaps for the ſubject) reverſible by the Britiſh houſe of lords, to which an appeal lies.

The juſtice-court is the higheſt criminal tribunal in Scotland; but in its preſent form it was inſtituted ſo late as the year 1672, when a lord-juſtice-general, removable at the king's pleaſure, was appointed. This lucrative office ſtill exiſts in the perſon of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court are the juſtice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of ſeſſion. In this court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits; but, as I have already hinted, without any neceſſity of being unanimous.

Beſide theſe two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the ſame power, authority,

thority, privilege, and jurisdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenue there; and all matters and things competent to the court of exchequer of England relating thereto are likewise competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exercise certain powers which formerly belonged to the treasury, and are still vested in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland, was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a supreme court, in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction: and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and justice general upon the seas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the same; and upon fresh waters and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood mark; so that nothing competent to its jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord high admiral and judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty may be brought again before his court: but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the session, or any other judicatory, unless in cases not maritime. Causes are tried in this court by the civil law, which in such cases is likewise the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse-towns, and other maritime practices and decisions common upon the continent. The place of lord admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the salary annexed to it is reckoned worth 1000l. a year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which answers to the English inns of court, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are within themselves an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attorneys, who call themselves writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a by government for their own regulation. Such are the different law-courts that are held in the capital of Scotland: we shall pass to those that are inferior.

The government of the counties in Scotland was formerly vested in sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron-courts, commissaries, justices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly sheriffdoms were generally hereditable; but by a late act of parliament, they are now all vested in the crown; it being there enacted, that all high sheriffs or stewards, shall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majesty, his heirs, and successors. In regard to the sheriff deputes, and steward-deputes, it is enacted that there shall only be one in each county, or stewartry, who must be an advocate, of three years standing at least. For the space of seven years, these deputies are to be nominated by the king, with such continuance as his majesty shall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their office *ad vitam aut culpam*, that is, for life, unless guilty of some offence. Some other regulations have been likewise introduced, highly for the credit of the sheriffs' courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the stewards had much the same power in them as the sheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old were held by virtue of a royal jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were so dangerous, and so extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now dissolved by an act of parliament.

Baron

Baron courts belong to every perſon who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters, they extend to matters not exceeding forty ſhillings ſterling; and in criminal caſes, to petty actions of aſſault and battery; but the puniſhment is not to exceed twenty ſhillings ſterling, or ſetting the delinquent in the ſtocks for three hours, in the day time. Theſe courts, however petty, were in former days inveſted with the power of life and death, which they have now loſt.

The courts of commiſſaries in Scotland anſwer to thoſe of the Engliſh dioceſan chancellors. the higheſt of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and teſtaments; the right of patronage to eccleſiaſtical benefices, tithes, divorces, and cauſes of that nature; but in almoſt all other parts of the kingdom, there ſits but one judge on theſe cauſes.

According to the preſent inſtitution, juſtices of the peace in Scotland exerciſe pretty much the ſame powers as thoſe in England. In former times their office, though of very old ſtanding, was inſignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament, that they were not to take cogniſance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The inſtitution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legiſlator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invaſion of England. They took cogniſance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to regiſter depoſitions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors: the office, however, is at preſent much diſuſed in Scotland.

From the above ſhort view of the Scotch laws and inſtitutions, it is plain that they were radically the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh. The latter allege, indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, their oldeſt law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the other hand, ſay, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exiſt in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year, at Edinburgh, conſiſting of a repreſentative from each burgh, to conſult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are pretty extenſive, and before the Union they made laws relating to ſhipping, to maſters and owners of ſhips, to mariners, and merchants by whom they were freighted: to manufactures, ſuch as plaiding, linen, and yarn: to the curing and packing of fiſh, ſalmon, and herrings, and to the importing and exporting ſeveral commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is ſubject to their regulation: they fix the ſtaple port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Campvere. Their conſervator is indeed nominated by the crown, but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and oppoints his ſalary: ſo that, in truth, the whole ſtaple trade is ſubjected to their management. Upon the whole this is a very ſingular inſtitution, and ſufficiently proves the vaſt attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its preſent form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent conſequences for the benefit of commerce.

Such are the laws and conſtitutions of Scotland, as they exiſt at preſent, in their general view; but our bounds do not permit us to deſcend to farther particulars, which are various and complicated. The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The Engliſh law reports are of the ſame nature with the Scotch practice; and their acts of ſederunt anſwer to the Engliſh rules of

of court; the Scottiſh wadſets and reverſions, to the Engliſh mortgages and defeaſances; their poinding of goods, after letters of horning, is much the ſame as the Engliſh executions upon outlawries; and an appeal againſt the king's pardon, in caſes of murder, by the next of kin to the deceaſed, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other uſages are the ſame in both kingdoms. I cannot, however, diſmiſs this head without one obſervation, which proves the ſimilarity between the Engliſh and Scotch conſtitutions, which I believe has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in preſence of the king, who was ſeated on the top of a hillock, which in the old Scottiſh conſtitution, is called the Moot, or Mute-hill; all national affairs were here tranſacted: judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of the ſame nature as the Saxon Folcmote, and to ſignify no more than the hill of meeting.

History.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch hiſtory are too fond of ſyſtem and fable, yet it is eaſy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were, probably, the firſt inhabitants; the Picts undoubtedly were the Britons, who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, about fourſcore years before the deſcent of Julius Cæſar, and who, ſettling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, that were driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots moſt probably were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had ſerved in the armies on the continent, and, as has been already hinted, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying ſouthward of the Forth, appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all theſe people in proceſs of time were ſubdued by the Scots.

Having premiſed thus much, it is unneceſſary for me to inveſtigate the conſtitution of Scotland from its fabulous, or even its early ages. It is ſufficient to add, to what I have already ſaid upon that head, that they ſeem to have been as forward as any of their ſouthern neighbours in the arts of war and government.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the hiſtory of that war is not only tranſmitted with great preciſion, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raiſed by Agricola in his march toward Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave ſtand made by Galdus againſt that great general, does honour to the valour of both people; and the ſentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appeared to have warmed the noble hiſtorian with the ſame generous paſſion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola, to conceal ſome part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned ſouthward, to the province of the Horeſti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwiſe called Corbred, was, according to the Scotch hiſtorians, the 21ſt in the lineal deſcent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been diſputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from the Roman hiſtories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a ſucceſſion of brave and wiſe princes, during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant reſiſtance obliged Agricola himſelf, and after him the emperors Adrian and Severus,

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to build the two famous pretentures or walls, one between the Frith of Clyde and Forth already mentioned, and the other between Tinmouth and the Solway Frith, which will be deſcribed in our account of England, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and which prove that the independence of the latter was never ſubdued.

Chriſtianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Chriſtian æra, by Donald I. The Picts, who, as before mentioned, were the deſcendants of the ancient Britons, forced northwards by the Romans, had at this time gained a footing in Scotland; and being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined the Romans againſt the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the ſame original, and conſidered themſelves as one people; ſo that the Scots monarchy ſuffered a ſhort eclipſe; but it broke out with more luſtre than ever, under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his ſucceſſors gave many ſevere overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain in 448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas, a Britiſh hiſtorian, were a powerful nation, and in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very ſea; ſo that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief; and in the famous letter, which they called *their groans*, they tell them, that they had no choice left, but that of being ſwallowed up by the ſea, or periſhing by the ſwords of the barbarians: for ſo all nations were called who were not Romans, or under the Roman protection.

Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldeſt hiſtories, and thoſe that are leaſt favourable to monarchy, that the ſucceſſion to the crown of Scotland ſtill continued in the family of Fergus, but generally deſcended collaterally; till the inconveniencies of that mode of ſucceſſion were ſo much felt, that by degrees it fell into diſuſe, and it was at laſt ſettled in the deſcending line.

About the year 796, the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince ſo much reſpected, that his friendſhip was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them, which continued inviolate while the monarchy of Scotland had an exiſtence. No fact of equal antiquity is better atteſted than this league, together with the great ſervice performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civiliſing the vaſt dominions of that great conqueror, as has been already obſerved under the article of Learning. The Picts ſtill remained in Scotland, as a ſeparate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally ſubdued them; but not in the ſavage manner mentioned by ſome hiſtorians, by extermination. For he obliged them to incorporate themſelves with their conquerors, by taking their names, and adopting their laws. The ſucceſſors of Kennith Mac Alpin maintained almoſt perpetual wars with the Saxons on the ſouthward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the eaſt; who being maſters of the ſea haraſſed the Scots by powerful invaſions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the Engliſh: for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at laſt driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Daniſh monarchs who then governed England were not more ſucceſsful againſt the Scots, who maintained their freedom and independency, not only againſt foreigners, but againſt their own kings, when they thought them endangered. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaelic words which ſignify a *large head*, but moſt probably from his great capacity, was the eighty-ſixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the ſuppoſed founder

founder of the monarchy; the forty-ſeventh from its reſtorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-ſecond from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakeſpeare, who keeps cloſe to the facts delivered by hiſtorians, can be no ſtranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own hiſtory, previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057. He was a wiſe and a magnanimous prince, and in no reſpect inferior to his cotemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, ſurnamed the Outlaw, ſon to Edmund Ironſide, king of England. By the death of her brother Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the poſterity of that princeſs, who was one of the wiſeſt and worthieſt women of the age; and her daughter Maud was accordingly married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his ſon, treacherouſly, it is ſaid, at the ſiege of Alnwick, by the beſieged.

Malcolm III. was ſucceeded by his brother Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whoſe legitimacy was diſputed. They were ſucceeded by Edgar, the ſon of Malcolm III. who was a wiſe and valiant prince; he was ſucceeded by Alexander I. and upon his death David I. mounted the throne.

Notwithſtanding the endeavours of ſome hiſtorians to conceal what they cannot deny, I mean the glories of this reign, it yet appears, that David was one of the greateſt princes of that age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legiſlator. The noble actions he performed in the ſervice of his niece, the empreſs Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the Engliſh crown, gave us the higheſt idea of his virtues, as they could be the reſult only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightieſt prince of his age, owed his crown; and his poſſeſſions in England joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power nearly on an equality with that of England, when confined to this iſland. His actions and adventures, and the reſources he always found in his own courage, prove him to have been a hero of the firſt rank. If he appeared to be too laviſh to churchmen, and in his religious endowments, we are to conſider theſe were the only means by which he could then civiliſe his kingdom: and the code of laws I have already mentioned to have been drawn up by him, do his memory immortal honour. They are ſaid to have been compiled under his inſpection by learned men, whom he aſſembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melroſs. He was ſucceeded by his grandſon Malcolm IV. and he by William, ſurnamed from his valour, The Lion. William's ſon Alexander II. was ſucceeded in 1249, by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, firſt, Margaret daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married the earl of Flanders's daughter; David, and Margaret who married Hangowan, or, as ſome call him, Eric, ſon to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter named Margaret commonly called the Maiden of Norway; in whom king William's whole poſterity failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to the deſcendants of David earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

I have been the more particular in this detail, becauſe it was productive of great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great-grandſon to David earl of Huntingdon by his eldeſt daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce) grandſon to the ſame earl of Huntingdon by his youngeſt daughter Iſabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of ſucceſſion,

which were not ſo well eſtabliſhed in Europe as they are at preſent, rendered the caſe very difficult. Both parties were almoſt equally matched in intereſt; but after a confuſed interregnum of ſome years, the great nobility agreed in referring the deciſion to Edward I. of England, the moſt politic, ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived ſome obſolete abſurd claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was diſpoſed to hold it by that diſgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a ſlave, without Baliol's reſenting it.

After this, Edward uſed many endeavours to annex their crown to his own, which were often defeated, and though Edward for a ſhort time made himſelf maſter of Scotland, yet the Scots were ready to revolt againſt him on every favourable opportunity. Thoſe of them who were ſo zealouſly attached to the independency of their country, as to be reſolved to hazard every thing for it, were indeed but few compared to thoſe in the intereſt of Edward and Baliol, which was the ſame; and for ſome time they were obliged to temporiſe. Edward availed himſelf of their weakneſs and his own power. He accepted of a formal ſurrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a penſion, but detained him in England; and ſent every nobleman in Scotland whom he in the leaſt ſuſpected, to different priſons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to ſign inſtruments of their ſubjection to him, and moſt barbarouſly carried off or deſtroyed all the monuments of their hiſtory, and the evidence of their independency; and particularly the famous fatidical or prophetic ſtone, which is ſtill to be ſeen in Weſtminſter Abbey.

Theſe ſevere proceedings, while they rendered the Scots ſenſible of their ſlavery, revived in them the ideas of their freedom; and Edward finding their ſpirits were not to be ſubdued, endeavoured to careſs them, and affected to treat them on a footing of equality with his own ſubjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have ſince taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with diſdain, and united under the brave William Wallace, the trueſt hero of his age, to expel the Engliſh. Wallace performed actions that entitled him to eternal renown, in executing this ſcheme. Being however no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increaſing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the ſon of the firſt competitor, began to ſuſpect that he had an eye upon the crown, eſpecially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garriſons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the ſtates of Scotland their protector. Their jealouſy operated ſo far, that they formed violent cabals againſt the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this, once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the moſt numerous and beſt diſciplined army England had ever ſeen, for it conſiſted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horſemen completely armed, and 4000 light armed; and was attended by a fleet to ſupply it with proviſions. Theſe, beſides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irreſiſtible body: Edward, however, was obliged to divide it, reſerving the command of 40,000 of his beſt troops to himſelf. With theſe he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their diſputes ran ſo high, that the brave regent was deſerted by Cumming, the moſt powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the beſt diviſion of his countrymen. Wallace, whoſe troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with vaſt loſs, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error in joining with Edward. Wallace ſtill continued

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in arms, and performed many gallant actions againſt the Engliſh; but was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who moſt ungenerouſly put him to death at London, as a traitor; but he died himſelf as he was preparing to renew his invaſion of Scotland with a ſtill more deſolating ſpirit of ambition, after having deſtroyed 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died ſoon after the battle of Falkirk, but not before he had inſpired his ſon, who was a priſoner at large about the Engliſh court, with the glorious reſolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country's independency. He eſcaped from London, and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his own four brothers, he aſſumed the crown, but was defeated by the Engliſh (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle of Methven. After his defeat, he fled with one or two friends to the Weſtern Iſles, and parts of Scotland, where his fatigues and ſufferings were as inexpreſſible, as the courage with which he and his few friends bore them (the lord Douglas eſpecially) was incredible. Though his wife and daughters were ſent priſoners to England, where the beſt of his friends and two of his brothers were put to death, yet ſuch was his perſevering ſpirit, that he recovered all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Stirling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the diſſipated conduct of Edward II. who raiſed an army more numerous and better appointed ſtill than that of his father, to make a total conqueſt of Scotland. It is ſaid that it conſiſted of 100,000 men, though this has been ſuppoſed to be an exaggerated computation: however it is admitted that the army of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all of them heroes, who had been bred up in a deteſtation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in point of courage, led this mighty hoſt towards Stirling, then beſieged by Bruce, who had choſen, with the greateſt judgment, a camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Glouceſter, Hereford, Pembroke, and ſir Giles Argenton. Thoſe under Bruce were, his own brother ſir Edward, who, next to himſelf, was reckoned to be the beſt knight in Scotland, his nephew, Randolph earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-ſteward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was exceedingly furious, and required all the courage and firmneſs of Bruce and his friends to reſiſt it, which they did ſo effectually, that they gained one of the moſt complete victories that is recorded in hiſtory. The great loſs of the Engliſh fell upon the braveſt part of their troops, who were led on by Edward in perſon againſt Bruce himſelf. The Scotch writers make the loſs of the Engliſh to amount to 50,000 men. Be that as it will, there certainly never was a more total defeat, though the conquerors loſt 4000. The flower of the Engliſh nobility were either killed or taken priſoners. Their camp, which was immenſely rich, and calculated for the purpoſe rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots; and Edward himſelf, with a few followers, favoured by the goodneſs of their horſes, were purſued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he eſcaped in a fiſhing-boat. This great and deciſive battle happened in the year 1314*.

* That the Scots of thoſe days were better acquainted with Mars than the Muſes, may be ſeen from a ſcoffing ballad made on this memorable victory, which begins as follows:

Maydens of England ſore may you mourn,
For your lemmons you have loſt at Bannockburn.
With heve a low!
What ho! ween'd the king of England,
So ſoon to have won all Scotland
With rumby low.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a ſeries of the moſt glorious ſucceſſes; and ſo well did his nobility underſtand the principles of civil liberty, and ſo unfettered were they by religious conſiderations, that, in a letter they ſent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had ſet aſide Baliol for debaſing the crown, by holding it of England: and that they would do the ſame by Robert, if he ſhould make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, ſent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greateſt part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but by expoſing himſelf too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, which happened in 1328, made an advantageous peace with England; and when he died, he was acknowledged to be indiſputably the greateſt hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be ſaid to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was ſucceeded by his ſon David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipſed by his brother-in-law and enemy, Edward III. of England, whoſe ſiſter he married. Edward, who was as keen as any of his predeceſſors upon the conqueſt of Scotland, eſpouſed the cauſe of Baliol, ſon to Baliol the original competitor. His progreſs was at firſt amazingly rapid; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at laſt driven out of his uſurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David had the misfortune to be taken priſoner by the Engliſh at the battle of Durham: and after continuing above eleven years in captivity, he paid 100,000 marks for his ranſom; and died in peace without iſſue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The firſt king of that name was Robert II. a wiſe and brave prince. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Robert III. whoſe age and infirmities diſqualified him from reigning; ſo that he was forced to truſt the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who ſeems to have had an eye to the crown for his own family. Robert, upon this, attempted to ſend his ſecond ſon to France; but he was moſt ungenerouſly intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and, after ſuffering a long captivity, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ranſom. During the impriſonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greateſt height in France, where they ſupported that tottering monarchy againſt England, and their generals obtained ſome of the firſt titles of the kingdom.

James, the firſt of that name, upon his return to Scotland, diſcovered great talents for government, enacted many wiſe laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he ſaw the feudal ſyſtem refined from many of the imperfections which ſtill adhered to it in his own kingdom; he determined therefore to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover ſuch lands as had been unjuſtly wreſted from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns; but the execution of theſe deſigns coſt him his life; he being murdered in his bed by ſome of the chief nobility in 1437, and the 44th year of his age.

A long minority ſucceeded; but James II. would probably have equalled the greateſt of his anceſtors both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been ſuddenly killed by the accidental burſting of a cannon, in the thirteenth year of his age, as he was beſieging the caſtle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the Engliſh.

Suſpicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are viſible in the conduct of James III. and his

his turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects, being slain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His son, James IV. was the most accomplished prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave: he loved magnificence, he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his subjects, so that they greatly increased in riches; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII.'s daughter, was splendid and respectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family distemper, a predilection for the French, in whose cause he rashly entered, and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the English, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his son, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the first being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the house of Guise. He instituted the court of session, enacted many salutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was so equally poised between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendship was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent presents. But James took little share in foreign affairs; he seemed rather to imitate his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility: and the doctrines of the reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he gave way, at the instigation of the clergy, to a religious persecution; though it is generally believed, that, had he lived longer, he would have seized all the church revenues, in imitation of Henry. However, having rather slighted some friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this short expedition, the English army retired to Berwick. Upon this the king of Scotland sent ten thousand men to the western borders, who entered England at Solway Frith; and he himself followed them at a small distance, ready to join them upon occasion. But he soon after gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, lord Maxwell, of his commission, and conferring the command on Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman, who was his favourite. The army were so much disgusted with this alteration, that they were ready to disband, when a small body of English horse appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic seized the Scots, who immediately took to flight, supposing themselves to be attacked by the whole body of the English army. The English horse, seeing them flee with such precipitation, closely pursued them, and slew great numbers, taking prisoners seven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred soldiers, with twenty-four pieces of ordnance. This disaster so much affected king James, that it threw him into a fit of illness, of which he soon after died, on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and successor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her misconduct, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in history. It is sufficient here to say, that during her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland; that being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her own cousin-german, the lord Darnley, whose untimely death hath given rise to so much contro-

verſy. The conſequence of her huſband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was conſidered as his murderer, was an inſurrection of her ſubjects, from whom ſhe fled into England, where ſhe was ungenerouſly detained a priſoner for eighteen years, and afterwards, on motives of ſtate policy, beheaded by queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the forty-ſixth year of her age.

Mary's ſon, James VI. of Scotland, ſucceeded, in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the Engliſh crown, after ſhowing conſiderable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in fact, deſtroyed the independency, as it impoveriſhed the people of Scotland: for the ſeat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to ſeek for bread in other countries. James, after a ſplendid but troubleſome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1625, to his ſon, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his deſpotic principles and conduct, induced both his Scottiſh and Engliſh ſubjects to take up arms againſt him; and indeed, it was in Scotland that the ſword was firſt drawn againſt Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himſelf into the power of the Scottiſh army: they at firſt treated him with reſpect, but afterwards delivered him up to the Engliſh parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was ſaid to be due to them for arrears. However the Scots afterwards made ſeveral bloody but unſucceſsful attempts to reſtore his ſon, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worceſter, 1651, after which, to the time of his reſtoration, the commonwealth of England and the protector gave law to Scotland. I have, in another place, touched on the moſt material parts of Charles's reign, and that of his deluded brother, James VII. of Scotland, and II. of England, as well as of king William, who was ſo far from being a friend to Scotland, that, relying on his royal word to her parliament, ſhe was brought to the brink of ruin.

The ſtate of parties in England, at the acceſſion of queen Anne, was ſuch, that the Whigs once more had recourſe to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate union as it now ſtands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliament would liſten to the propoſal; but, at laſt, partly from conviction, and partly through the force of money diſtributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; ſince which event the hiſtory of Scotland becomes the ſame with that of England.

ENGLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	
Length 380	between	50 and 56 North latitude.	
Breadth 300		2 Eaſt and 6-20 Weſt longitude.	

Great Britain contains 79,712 ſquare miles, with 119 inhabitants to each.

CLIMATE AND BOUNDARIES. THE longeſt day in the northern parts contains 17 hours and 30 minutes; and the ſhorteſt in the ſouthern near eight hours. It is bounded on the North by that part of the iſland

ENGLAND and WALES from the best AUTHORITIES.

References to the Counties.

1	Cornwall	27	Glamorganshire
2	Devonshire	28	Brecknockshire
3	Dorsetshire	29	Caermarthenshire
4	Somersetshire	30	Pembrokeshire
5	Wiltshire	31	Radnorshire
6	Hampshire	32	Cardiganshire
7	Surrey	33	Montgomeryshire
8	Kent	34	Merionethshire
9	Surry	35	Flintshire
10	Berkshire	36	Denbighshire
11	Glowcestershire	37	Caernarvonshire
12	Oxfordshire	38	Anglesea
13	Buckinghamshire	39	Shropshire
14	Middlesex	40	Staffordshire
15	Bedfordshire	41	Leicestershire
16	Hartfordshire	42	Rutlandshire
17	Essex	43	Lincolnshire
18	Suffolk	44	Nottinghamshire
19	Norfolk	45	Derbyshire
20	Cambridgeshire	46	Cheshire
21	Huntingdonshire	47	Lancashire
22	Northamptonshire	48	Yorkshire
23	Warwickshire	49	Westmoreland
24	Worcestershire	50	Durham
25	Herefordshire	51	Cumberland
26	Monmouthshire	52	Northumberland

British Statute Miles.

10 30 50 60

Rathlin I. Mull of Ca Fair Hd Londonderry Belfast Down Patrick Dundalk Dundalk Bay Drogheda DUBLIN Dublin Har Wicklow Wexford Haven Waterford Waterford Carnarvon Pt Milford Haven Cley Bromer Halsham Gr. Yarmouth Lowestoff Southwold Dunwich Aldborough Orford Harwich Ostend Nieuport Dunkirk Calais Boulogne Eu Dieppe Middelburg Flushing Sandwich Deal Foreland Dover Romney Dungeness Hastings Lands End Scilly Mounts Bay St Ives Penzance

IRISH SEA — ST GEORGES CHANNEL — GERMAN OCEAN — NETHERLANDS — FRANCE

West Longitude from London. East Longitude from London.

ENGLAND and WALES from the best AUTHORITIES.

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14	Middlesex	40	Staffordshire
15	Bedfordshire	41	Leicestershire
16	Hartfordshire	42	Rutlandshire
17	Essex	43	Lincolnshire
18	Suffolk	44	Nottinghamshire
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23	Warwickshire	49	Westmoreland
24	Worcestershire	50	Durham
25	Herefordshire	51	Cumberland
26	Monmouthshire	52	Northumberland

British Statute Miles.
10 30 50 60

Longitude 7 from London 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 1 2 East Longitude 3 from London.

iſland called Scotland; on the Eaſt by th eGerman Ocean; on the Weſt by St. George's Channel; and on the South by the Engliſh Channel, which parts it from France, and contains 49,450 ſquare miles.

The ſituation, by the ſea waſhing it on three ſides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather, ſo that the inhabitants on part of the ſea-coaſts are often viſited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the ſame degree of latitude, are ſubject; and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, eſpecially thoſe who live on a dry ſoil. To this ſituation likewiſe we are to aſcribe that perpetual verdure for which England is remarkable, occaſioned by refreſhing ſhowers and the warm vapours of the ſea.

NAME AND DIVISIONS, ANCIENT AND MODERN. Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology of the word *England*; ſome derive it from a Celtic word, ſignifying a level country; but I prefer the common etymology, of its being derived from Anglen, a province now ſubject to his Daniſh majeſty, which furniſhed a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this iſland. In the time of the Romans the whole iſland went by the name of *Britannia*. The word *Brit*, according to Mr. Camden, ſignified painted or ſtained: the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies: other antiquaries, however, do not agree in this etymology. The weſtern tract of England, which is almoſt ſeparated from the reſt by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called Wales, or the *land of ſtrangers*, becauſe inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were ſtrangers to the old natives.

When the Romans provinciated England, they divided it into,

1. Britannia Prima, which contained the ſouthern parts of the kingdom.

2. Britannia Secunda, containing the weſtern parts, comprehending Wales. And

3. Maxima Cæſarienſis, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, and ſometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

To theſe diviſions ſome add the Flavia Cæſarienſis, which they ſuppoſe to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England, about the year 450, and when they were eſtabliſhed in the year 582, their chief leaders appropriated to themſelves, after the manner of other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the moſt inſtrumental in conquering; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political republic, conſiſting of ſeven kingdoms. But in time of war, a chief was choſen out of the ſeven kingdoms; for which reaſon I call it a political republic, its conſtitution greatly reſembling that of ancient Greece.

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, uſually ſtyled the Saxon heptarchy.

KINGDOMS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
1. Kent, founded by Hengiſt in 475, and ended in 823	Kent	Canterbury
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600	Suſſex	Chicheſter
	Surry	Southwark

KINGDOMS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
3. East Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793 -	Norfolk - - - - - - - - -	Norwich
	Suffolk - - - - - - - - -	BurySt. Edmonds
	Cambridge - - - - - - - -	Cambridge
	With the Isle of Ely - - -	Ely
4. West Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1060 -	Cornwall - - - - - - - - -	Launceston
	Devon - - - - - - - - -	Exeter
	Dorset - - - - - - - - -	Dorchester
	Somerset - - - - - - - - -	Bath
	Wilts - - - - - - - - -	Salisbury
	Hants - - - - - - - - -	Winchester
	Berks - - - - - - - - -	Abingdon
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 574, and ended in 792 - - - - - - -	Lancaster - - - - - - - -	Lancaster
	York - - - - - - - - -	York
	Durham - - - - - - - -	Durham
	Cumberland - - - - - -	Carlisle
	Westmoreland - - - - - -	Appleby
	Northumberland and Scotland, to the Frith of Edinburgh - - - - - -	Newcastle
6. East Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and end in 746 - - - -	Essex - - - - - - - - -	London
	Middlesex, and part of Hertford - - - - - - -	
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874 - - -	The other part of Hertford	Hertford
	Gloucester - - - - - - -	Gloucester
	Hereford - - - - - - - -	Hereford
	Worcester - - - - - - -	Worcester
	Warwick - - - - - - -	Warwick
	Leicester - - - - - - - -	Leicester
	Rutland - - - - - - - -	Oakham
	Northampton - - - - - -	Northampton
	Lincoln - - - - - - - -	Lincoln
	Huntingdon - - - - - -	Huntingdon
	Bedford - - - - - - - -	Bedford
	Buckingham - - - - - -	Aylesbury
	Oxford - - - - - - - -	Oxford
	Stafford - - - - - - - -	Stafford
	Derby - - - - - - - -	Derby
	Salop - - - - - - - -	Shrewsbury
	Nottingham - - - - - -	Nottingham
	Chester - - - - - - - -	Chester

I have been the more solicitous to preserve these divisions, as they account for different local customs, and many very essential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their rise from different institutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman invasion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progresses of the judges, for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. The circuits are:

I. Home

CIRCUITS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
I. Home circuit	Eſſex	Chelmsford, Colcheſter, Harwich, Malden, Saffron Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
	Hertford	Hertford, St. Alban's, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Biſhop's - Stortford, Berkhamſted, Hemſted, and Barnet.
	Kent	Maidſtone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rocheſter, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feverſham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerneſs, Tunbridge, Margate, Graveſend, and Milton.
	Surry	Southwark, Kingſton, Guildford, Croydon, Epſom, Richmond, Wandſworth, Batterſea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagſhot, Egham, and Darking.
	Suſſex	Chicheſter, Lewes, Rye, Eaſt Grinſtead, Haſtings, Horſham, Midhurſt, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelſea, Battel, Brighthelmſtone, and Petworth.
II. Norfolk circuit	Bucks	Ayleſbury, Buckingham, High Wickham, Great Marlow, Stoney-Stratford, and Newport Pagnel.
	Bedford	Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunſtable, Luton, and Biggleſwade.
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmancheſter, St. Neot's, Rainſey, and Yaxley.
	Cambridge	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royſton, and Wiſbich.
	Suffolk	Bury, Ipſwich, Sudbury, Leoſtoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Halefworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Framlingham, Stowmarket, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long-Melford, Stratford, and Eaſtbergholt.
	Norfolk	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, Yarmouth.
III. Oxford circuit	Oxon	Oxford, Banbury, Chippin-Norton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorcheſter, Woodſtock, and Thame.
	Berks	Abingdon, Windſor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, and Oakingham.
	Glouceſter	Glouceſter, Tewkſbury, Cirenceſter, part of Briſtol, Camden, Stow, Berkley, Durſley, Lechdale, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, and Marſhfield.

CIRCUITS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
III. Oxford circuit, continued	Worceſter	Worceſter, Eveſham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminſter, and Perſhore.
	Monmouth	Monmouth, Chepſtow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport.
	Hereford	Hereford, Leominſter, Weobley, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Roſs.
	Salop	Shrewſbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Biſhop's Caſtle, Whitchurch, Oſweſtry, Wem, and Newport.
	Stafford	Stafford, Litchfield, Newcaſtle under Line, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Utoxeter, and Stone.
IV. Midland circuit	Warwick	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulceſter, Nuneaton, and Atherton.
	Leiceſter	Leiceſter, Melton-Mowbray, Aſhby-de-la Zouch, Boſworth, and Harborough.
	Derby	Derby, Cheſterfield, Wirkſworth, Aſhbourne, Bakewell, Balſover, and Buxton.
	Nottingham	Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, Eaſt and Weſt Retford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Workſop, and Blithe.
	Lincoln	Lincoln, Stamford, Boſton, Grantham, Croyland, Spalding, New Sleaford, Great Grimſby, Gainſborough, Louth, and Horncaſtle.
	Rutland	Oakham, and Uppingham.
	Northampton	Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thrapſton, Towceſter, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell.
V. Weſtern circuit	Hants	Wincheſter, Southampton, Portſmouth, Andover, Baſingſtoke, Chriſtchurch, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Rumſey, Alreſford, and Newport, Yarmouth and Cowes, in the Iſle of Wight.
	Wilts	Saliſbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmſbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Bradford, and Warminſter.
	Dorſet	Dorcheſter, Lyme, Sherborne, Shaftesbury, Poole, Blandford, Bridport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn.
	Somerſet	Bath, Wells, Briſtol in part, Taunton, Bridgewater, Ilcheſter, Minehead, Milbourn-Port, Glaſtonbury,

CIRCUITS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
		bury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunſter, Watchet, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Croſcomb, and Froome.
V. Weſtern circuit, continued	Devon - - - -	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnſtable, Bideford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Taviſtock, Topſham, Okehampton, Aſhburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totneſs, Axminſter, Plympton, and Ilfracomb.
	Cornwall - - -	Launceſton, Falmouth, Truro, Saltaſh, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padſtow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Leſkeard, Leſtwithiel, Helſton, Penzance, and Redruth.
	York - - - - -	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaſter, Whitby, Beverley, Northallerton, Burlington, Knareſborough, Barneſley, Sherborne, Bradford, Tadcaſter, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirſke, Giſborough, Pickering, and Yarum.
VI. Northern circuit *	Durham - - - - -	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Caſtle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Awkland.
	Northumberland	Newcaſtle, Tinmouth, North Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham.
	Lancaſter - - - -	Lancaſter, Manchester, Preſton, Liverpool, Wigan, Rochdale, Warrington, Bury, Ormſkirk, Hawkſhead, and Newton.
	Weſtmorland - -	Appleby, Kendal, Lonſdale, Kirby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleſide, Burton, and Milthorpe.
	Cumberland - -	Carliſle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglaſs, Egremont, Keſwick, Workington, and Jerby.

Middleſex is not comprehended; and Cheſhire is left out of theſe circuits, becauſe, being a county palatine, it enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The ſame may be ſaid of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

* In the Lent or Spring aſſizes, the Northern circuits extend only to York and Lancaſter; the aſſizes at Durham, Newcaſtle, Appleby, and Carliſle, being held only in the autumn, and diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the *long circuit*.

Counties,

	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Counties, exclusive of the circuits - - -	Middlesex - -	London, first meridian, North Lat. 51-30. Westminster, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelsea, Highgate, Hampstead, Kensington, Hackney, and Hampton Court.
	Chester - - - -	Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sandbach, Congleton, Knotsford, Frodisham, and Haulton.

CIRCUITS OF WALES.

North-East circuit - - -	Flint - - - - - - -	Flint, St. Asaph, and Holywell.
	Denbigh - - - -	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen.
	Montgomery - -	Montgomery, Llanvylin, and Welchpool.
North-West circuit - - -	Anglesey - - - -	Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newburgh.
	Caernarvon - -	Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullhilly.
	Merioneth - - -	Dolgelly, Bala, and Haleigh.
South-East circuit - - -	Radnor - - - -	Radnor, Presteen, and Knighton.
	Brecon - - - -	Brecknock, Built, and Hay.
	Glamorgan - - -	Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swansey.
South-West circuit - - -	Pembroke - - -	St. David's, Haverfordwest, Pembroke, Tenby, Fiscard, and Milfordhaven.
	Cardigan - - -	Cardigan, Aberistwith, and Llanbadarn-vawer.
	Caermarthen - -	Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Llanimdovery, Landilobawr, Langharn, and Lanelthy.

IN ENGLAND.

40	Counties, which send up to parliament - - -	80	knights.
25	Cities (Ely none, London four) - - - - - - -	50	citizens.
167	Boroughs, two each - - - - - - - - - - - -	334	burgesses.
5	Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham Ferrars and Monmouth) one each	5	burgesses.
2	Universities - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	4	representatives.
8	Cinque ports (Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelsea, and Seaford) two each	16	barons.

WALES.

WALES.

12	Counties -	12 knights.
12	Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none), one each - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	12 burgeſſes.

SCOTLAND.

33	Shires -	30 knights.
37	Cities and Boroughs - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	15 burgeſſes.
	Total	558

Beſides the 52 counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, conſiſting of certain diſtricts, to which the liberties and juriſdictions peculiar to a county have been granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county diſtinct from Middleſex; the cities of York, Cheſter, Briſtol, Exeter, Norwich, Worceſter, and the towns of Kingſton upon Hull, and Newcaſtle upon Tyne, are counties of themſelves, diſtinct from thoſe in which they lie. The ſame may be ſaid of Berwick upon Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and hath within its juriſdiction a ſmall territory of two miles on the north ſide of the river.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained: for every borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city. A borough is ſo called, becauſe it ſends up burgeſſes to parliament; and this makes the difference between a village or town, and a borough. Some boroughs are corporate, and ſome not corporate; and though decayed, as Old Sarum, they ſtill ſend burgeſſes to parliament. A city is a corporate borough, that hath had, or at preſent hath, a biſhop; for if the biſhoprick be diſſolved yet the city remains. To have ſuburbs, proves it to be a city. Some cities are alſo counties, as before mentioned.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] The ſoil of England and Wales differs in each county, not ſo much from the nature of the ground, though that muſt be admitted to occaſion a very conſiderable alteration, as from the progreſs which the inhabitants of each county have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marſhes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world, if we except China. To enter upon particular ſpecimens and proofs of theſe improvements, would require a large volume. All that can be ſaid therefore, is in general, that if no unkindly ſeaſon happen, England produces corn not only ſufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring large ſums of ready money for her exports.

The ſoil of England ſeems to be particularly adapted for rearing timber; and the plantations of trees round the houſes of noblemen and gentlemen, and even of peaſants, are delightful and aſtoniſhing at the ſame time. Some have obſerved a decay of that oak timber which anciently formed the great fleets that England put to ſea; but as no public complaints of this kind have been heard, it may be ſuppoſed that great ſtores are ſtill in reſerve; unleſs it may be thought that our ſhip-yards have lately been partly ſupplied from America, or the Baltic.

As to air, I can add but little to what I have already ſaid concerning the

climate.

climate *. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by weſterly winds; but they are ventilated by winds and ſtorms, ſo that in this reſpect England is, to foreigners, and people of delicate conſtitutions, more diſagreeable than unſalubrious. It cannot, however, be denied that in England the weather is ſo exceſſively capricious and unfavourable to certain conſtitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to fly to foreign countries, in hopes of obtaining a renovation of their health.

After what we have obſerved on the Engliſh air, the reader may form ſome idea of its ſeaſons, which are ſo uncertain, that they admit of no deſcription. Spring, ſummer, autumn, and winter, ſucceed each other; but in what month their different appearances take place, is very undetermined. The ſpring begins ſometimes in February, and ſometimes in April. In May the face of the country is often covered with hoar-froſt inſtead of bloſſoms. The beginning of June is ſometimes as cold as the middle of December; yet at other times the thermometer riſes in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even Auguſt has its viciſſitudes of heat and cold, and upon an average, September, and next to it October, are the two moſt agreeable months in the year. The natives ſometimes experience all the four ſeaſons within the compaſs of one day, cold, temperate, hot, and mild weather. After ſaying thus much, it would be in vain to attempt any farther deſcription of the Engliſh ſeaſons. Their inconſtancy, however, is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, or at moſt three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth; and it is hardly ever obſerved that the inhabitants ſuffer by a hot ſummer. Even the greateſt irregularity, and the moſt unfavourable appearance of the ſeaſons, are not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very ſeldom with ſcarcity. Perhaps this, in a great meaſure, may be owing to the vaſt improvements of agriculture; for when ſcarcity has been complained of, it generally, if not always, proceeded from the exceſſive exportations of grain, on account of the drawback, and the profit of the returns.

In ſpeaking of water, I do not include rivers, brooks, or lakes; I mean waters for the common convenience of life, and thoſe that have mineral qualities. The champaign parts of England are generally ſupplied with excellent ſprings and fountains; though a diſcerning palate may perceive, that they frequently contain ſome mineral impregnation. In ſome very high lands, the inhabitants are diſtreſſed for water, and ſupply themſelves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The conſtitutions of the Engliſh, and the diſeaſes to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquiſitive after ſalubrious waters, for the recovery

* The climate of England has more advantages than are generally allowed it, if we admit the opinion of king Charles the Second upon this ſubject, which is corroborated by that of ſir William Temple: and it may be obſerved, that they were both travellers. 'I muſt needs add one thing (ſays ſir William, in his *Miſcellanea*, part 'ii. p. 114, edit. 8vo. 1690) in favour of our climate, which I heard the king 'ſay, and I thought new and right, and truly like a king of England, that loved and 'eſteemed his own country. It was in reply to ſome company that were reviling our 'climate, and extolling thoſe of Italy and Spain, or at leaſt of France.' He ſaid, "He thought that was the beſt climate where he could be abroad in the air with plea-"ſure, or at leaſt without trouble or inconvenience, the moſt days in the year, and the "moſt hours in the day; and this he thought he could be in England, more than "in any country he knew in Europe." 'And I believe (adds ſir William) it is true, 'not only of the hot and the cold, but even among our neighbours in France and 'the Low Countries themſelves, where the heats or the colds, and changes of ſeaſons, are 'leſs treatable (or moderate) than they are with us.'

and

and preſervation of their health; ſo that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The moſt celebrated are the hot-baths of Bath and Briſtol in Somerſetſhire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyſhire; the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epſom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea-water is uſed as commonly as any other for medical purpoſes; and ſo delicate are the tones of the Engliſh fibres, that the patients can perceive, both in drinking and bathing, a difference between the ſea-water of one coaſt and that of another.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AND MOUNTAINS.] The induſtry of the Engliſh is ſuch, as to ſupply the abſence of thoſe favours which nature has ſo laviſhly beſtowed upon ſome foreign climates, and in many reſpects even to exceed them. No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful ſcenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former generally ſwelling, and both of them forming proſpects equal to the moſt luxuriant imagination, the corn and meadow ground, the intermixtures of incloſures and plantation, the noble ſeats, comfortable houſes, cheerful villages, and well-ſtocked farms, often riſing in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the moſt vivid colours of nature, are inexpreſſible. The moſt barren ſpots are not without their verdure; but nothing can give us a higher idea of the Engliſh induſtry, than obſerving that ſome of the pleaſanteſt counties in the kingdom are naturally the moſt barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. Upon the whole, it may be ſafely affirmed, that no country in Europe equals England in the beauty of its proſpects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

Though England is full of delightful riſing grounds, and the moſt enchanting ſlopes, yet it contains few mountains. The moſt noted are the Peak in Derbyſhire, the Endle in Lancaſhire, the Wolds in Yorkſhire, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worceſterſhire, Cotſwould in Glouceſterſhire, the Wrekin in Shropſhire; with thoſe of Plinlimmon and Snowdon in Wales. In general, however, Wales and the northern parts may be termed mountainous.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty as well as its opulence. The Thames, the nobleſt perhaps in the world, riſes on the confines of Glouceſterſhire, a little S. W. of Cirenceſter; and after receiving the many tributary ſtreams of other rivers, it paſſes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windſor. From thence to Kingſton, where formerly it met the tide, which, ſince the building of Weſtminſter-bridge, is ſaid to flow no higher than Richmond; from whence it flows to London, and after dividing the counties of Kent and Eſſex, it widens in its progreſs, till it falls into the ſea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ſhips to London bridge: but for a more particular deſcription, the reader muſt conſult the map. It was formerly a matter of reproach to England among foreigners, that ſo capital a river ſhould have ſo few bridges; thoſe of London and Kingſton being the only two it had, from the Nore to the laſt-mentioned place, for many ages. This inconveniency was in ſome meaſure owing to the dearneſs of materials for building ſtone bridges, but perhaps more to the fondneſs which the Engliſh, in former days, had for water-carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The great increaſe of riches, commerce, and inland trade, is now multiplying bridges, and the world cannot parallel, for commodiouſneſs, architecture, and workmanſhip, thoſe lately erected at Weſtminſter and Black Friars. Batterſea, Putney, Kew, Richmond,

Richmond, Walton, and Hampton-court, have now bridges likewiſe over the Thames, and others are projecting by public-ſpirited proprietors of the grounds on both ſides.

The river Medway, which riſes near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerneſs, and is navigable for the largeſt ſhips as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the ſecond river for importance in England, and the firſt for rapidity, riſes at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales; becomes navigable at Welſh-pool; runs eaſt to Shrewſbury; then turning ſouth, viſits Bridgenorth, Worceſter, and Tewkeſbury, where it receives the Upper Avon; after having paſſed Glouceſter, it takes a ſouth-weſt direction; is near its mouth increaſed by the Wye and Uſtre, and diſcharges itſelf into the Briſtol Channel, near King-road; and there lie the great ſhips which cannot get up to Briſtol. The Trent riſes in the Moorlands of Staffordſhire, and running ſouth-eaſt by Newcaſtle-under-Line, divides that county into two parts; then turning north-eaſt on the confines of Derbyſhire, viſits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnſhire, and being joined by the Ouſe, and ſeveral other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the ſea ſouth-eaſt of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England are the Ouſe (a Gaëlic word ſignifying *water* in general), which falls into the Humber, after receiving the waters of many other rivers. Another Ouſe riſes in Bucks, and falls into the ſea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tyne runs from weſt to eaſt through Northumberland, and falls into the German ſea at Tinmouth, below Newcaſtle. The Tees runs from weſt to eaſt, dividing Durham from Yorkſhire, and falls into the German ſea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from weſt to eaſt, on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German ſea at Berwick. The Eden runs from ſouth to the north through Weſtmorland and Cumberland, and paſſing by Carliſle, falls into Solway Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs weſt through Wiltſhire to Bath, and then dividing Somerſetſhire from Glouceſterſhire, runs to Briſtol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Cumberland, and paſſing by Cockermouth, falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below. The Ribble, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Lancaſhire, and paſſing by Preſton, diſcharges itſelf into the Iriſh ſea. The Merſey, which runs from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt through Cheſhire, and then dividing Cheſhire from Lancaſhire, paſſes by Liverpool, and falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below that town; and the Dee riſes in Wales, and divides Flintſhire from Cheſhire, falling into the Iriſh Channel below Cheſter.

The lakes of England are few; though it is plain from hiſtory and antiquity, and indeed, in ſome places, from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining, are Soham mere, Wittleſea mere, and Ramſey mere, in the iſle of Ely, in Cambridgeſhire. All theſe meres in a rainy ſeaſon are overflowed, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. Winander mere lies in Weſtmorland, and ſome ſmall lakes in Lancaſhire go by the name of Derwent waters.

FORESTS.] The firſt Norman kings of England, partly for political purpoſes, that they might the more effectually enſlave their new ſubjects, and partly from the wantonneſs of power, converted immenſe tracts of ground into foreſts for the benefit of hunting; and theſe were governed by laws peculiar to themſelves, ſo that it was neceſſary, about the time of paſſing the Magna Charta, to form a code of the foreſt-laws; and Juſtices in Eyre, ſo called from their ſitting in the open air, were appointed to

ſee them obſerved. By degrees thoſe vaſt tracts were diſforeſted: and the chief foreſts, properly ſo called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are thoſe of Windſor, New Foreſt, the Foreſt of Dean, and Sherwood Foreſt. Theſe foreſts produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, aſh, and beech, beſides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large woods, if not foreſts, of cheſnut trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purpoſes of building, as appears from many great houſes ſtill ſtanding, in which the cheſnut beams and roofs remain ſtill freſh and undecayed, though ſome of them are above 600 years old.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall deſervedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter eſpecially, ſome ages before that of the Chriſtian æra; and ſince the Engliſh have found a method of manufacturing their tin into plates and white iron, they are of imminenſe benefit to the nation. An ore called mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded till, above 70 years ago, ſir Gilbert Clark diſcovered the art of manufacturing it; and it is ſaid now to bring in 150,000l a year, and to equal in goodneſs the beſt Spaniſh copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris for making braſs. Thoſe tin works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the ſtannary laws; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Corniſh miners are ſaid to amount to 100,000. Some gold has likewiſe been diſcovered in Cornwall, and the Engliſh lead is impregnated with ſilver. The Engliſh coined ſilver is particularly known by roſes, and that of Wales by that prince's cap of feathers. Devonſhire, and other counties of England, produce marble; but the beſt kind, which reſembles Egyptian granite, is exceſſively hard to work. Quarries of freeſtone are found in many places. Northumberland and Cheſhire yield alum and ſalt pits. The Engliſh fuller's earth is of ſuch conſequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under ſevere penalties. Pit and ſea-coal is found in many counties of England; but the city of London, to encourage the nurſery of ſeamen, is chiefly ſupplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the biſhopric of Durham. The cargoes are ſhipped at Newcaſtle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries is a valuable article.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] This is ſo copious a ſubject, and ſuch improvements have been made in gardening and agriculture, ever ſince the beſt printed accounts we have had of both, that much muſt be left to the reader's own obſervation and experience. I have already touched upon the corn trade of England; but nothing can be ſaid with any certainty concerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grain growing in the kingdom. Excellent inſtitutions for the improvement of agriculture are now common in England; and their members are ſo public-ſpirited as to print periodical accounts of their diſcoveries and experiments, which ſerve to ſhow that agriculture and gardening may be carried to a much higher ſtate of perfection than they are in at preſent. Honey and ſaffron are natives of England. It is almoſt needleſs to mention to the moſt uninformed reader, in what plenty the moſt excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooſeberries, raſpberries, and other hortulan productions, grow here; and what quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in ſome counties. The cider of Devon and Herefordſhire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is often preferred, by judi-

cious

cious palates, to French white wine. It is not enough to mention thoſe improvements, did we not obſerve the natives of England have made the different fruits of the world their own, ſometimes by ſimple culture, but often by hot-beds, and other means of forcing nature. The Engliſh pine-apples are delicious and now plentiful. The ſame may be ſaid of other natives of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, Perſia, and Turkey. The Engliſh grapes are pleaſing to the taſte, but their flavour is not exalted enough for making of wine: and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raiſed here. Our kitchen gardens abound with all ſorts of greens, roots and ſallads, in perfection; ſuch as artichokes, aſparagus, cauliflowers, cabbages, coleworts, broccoli, peas, beans, kidney beans, ſpinach, beets, lettuce, celery, endive, turnips, carrots, potatoes, muſhrooms, leeks, onions, and ſhallots.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordſhire, as hemp and flax are in other counties. In nothing, however, have the Engliſh been more ſucceſsful than in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, trefoil, ſainfoin, lucern, and other meliorating graſſes for the ſoil. It belongs to a botaniſt to recount the various kinds of uſeful and ſalutary herbs, ſhrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The ſoil of Kent, Eſſex, Surry, and Hampſhire, is moſt favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which is now become a very conſiderable article of trade.

With regard to ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, I ſhall begin with the quadrupeds. The Engliſh oxen are large and fat; but ſome prefer for the table the ſmaller breed of the Scotch and the Welch cattle, after grazing in Engliſh paſtures. The Engliſh horſes are the beſt of any in the world, whether we regard their ſpirit, ſtrength, ſwiftneſs, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken, by all ranks, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal; and the ſucceſs has been anſwerable; for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Perſian, Arabian, Spaniſh, and other foreign horſes. The irreſiſtible ſpirit and weight of the Engliſh cavalry render them ſuperior to all others in war: and an Engliſh hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or ſtag-chaſe. Thoſe which draw equipages in the ſtreets of London, are often particularly beautiful. The exportation of horſes has of late become a conſiderable article of commerce. The breed of aſſes and mules begins likewiſe to be improved and encouraged in England.

The Engliſh ſheep are of two kinds; thoſe that are valuable for their fleece, and thoſe that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces conſtitute the original ſtaple commodity of England. In ſome counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in thoſe of their horſes and dogs; and in Lincolnſhire particularly, it is no uncommon thing for one of theſe animals to ſell for 50l. It muſt, however, be owned, that thoſe large fat ſheep are very rank eating. It is thought that in England, twelve millions of fleeces are ſhorn annually, which, at a medium of 2s. a fleece, makes 1,200,000l. It is ſuppoſed, that by the fall of the value of the fleeces, during the laſt years of the war, a fourth part of this ſum ought to be deducted; but now peace is reſtored, their price much advances. The other kind of ſheep which are fed upon the downs, ſuch as thoſe of Banſtead, Bagſhot-heath, and Devonſhire, where they have what the farmers call the ſhort bite, is little, if at all, inferior in flavour and ſweetneſs to veniſon.

The Engliſh maſtiffs and bull-dogs are ſaid to be the ſtrongeſt and fierceſt of the canine ſpecies in the world; but either from the change of ſoil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of experiment, turned out two Engliſh bull-dogs upon one of the fierceſt lions in the Tower, and they ſoon conquered him. The

maſtiff,

maſtiff, however, has all the courage of the bull-dog, without its ferocity, and is particularly diſtinguiſhed for his fidelity and docility. All the different ſpecies of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well as domeſtic uſes, are to be found in England.

What I have obſerved of the degeneracy of the Engliſh dogs in foreign countries, is applicable to the Engliſh game-cocks, which afford much barbarous diverſion to our ſportſmen. The courage of theſe birds is aſtoniſhing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive without victory. The proprietors and feeders of this generous animal are likewiſe extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowls are pretty much the ſame in England as in other countries; turkies, peacocks, common poultry, ſuch as cocks, pullets, and capons, geeſe, ſwans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild ſort are buſtards, wild geeſe, wild ducks, teal, wigeon, plover, pheaſants, partridges, woodcocks, grouſe, quail, landrail, ſnipe, wood-pigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws and jays, blackbirds, thruſhes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of ſmall birds; canary birds alſo breed in England. The wheat-ear is by many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its fleſh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

Few countries are better ſupplied than England with river and ſea-fiſh. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of ſalmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, ſmelts, carp, tench, barble, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and craw-fiſh, beſides a delicate lake-fiſh, called char, which is found in ſome freſh water lakes of Wales and Cumberland, and, as ſome ſay, no where elſe. The ſea-fiſh are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, ſkaite, ſoles. The john-dory, found towards the weſtern coaſt, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fiſh are found on the ſame coaſts. As to ſhell-fiſh, they are chiefly oyſters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobſters, crabs, ſhrimps, and eſcallops, one of the moſt delicious of ſhell-fiſhes, cockles, wilks, periwinkles, and muſcles, with many other ſmall ſhell-fiſh, abound in the Engliſh ſea. The whales chiefly viſit the northern coaſt; but great numbers of porpoiſes and ſeals appear in the channel.

With regard to reptiles, ſuch as adders, vipers, ſnakes, and worms; and inſects, ſuch as ants, gnats, waſps, and flies, England is pretty much upon a par with the reſt of Europe; and the difference, if any, becomes more proper for natural hiſtory than geography.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. The exemption of the Engliſh conſtitution from the deſpotic powers exerciſed in foreign nations, not excepting republics, is one great reaſon why it is very difficult to aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England; and yet it is certain that this might occaſionally be done, by parliament, without any violation of public liberty, and probably ſoon will take place. With regard to political calculations, they muſt be very fallible, when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners who ſettle in the nation, the emigrations of inhabitants to America and the iſlands, their return from thence, and the great number of hands employed in ſhipping, are all of them matters that render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, I am apt to think that England is more populous than the eſtimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The war with France and Spain, before the laſt, annually employed about 200,000 Engliſhmen, excluſive of Scotch and Iriſh, by ſea and land; and its progreſs carried off, by various means, very near that number.

The decay of population was indeed ſenſibly felt, but not ſo much as it was during the wars in queen Anne's reign, though not half of the numbers were then employed in the ſea and land ſervice.

At the ſame time, I am not of opinion that England is at preſent naturally more populous than ſhe was in the reign of Charles I. though ſhe is accidentally ſo. The Engliſh of former ages were ſtrangers to that exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors, and other modes of living that are deſtructive of propagation. On the other hand, the vaſt quantities of cultivated lands in England, ſince thoſe times, it might reaſonably be preſumed, would be favourable to mankind; but this advantage is probably more than counterbalanced by the prevailing practice of engroſſing farms, which is certainly unfavourable to population; and, independent of this, upon an average, perhaps a married couple has not ſuch a numerous progeny now as formerly. I will take the liberty to make another obſervation, which falls within the cogniſance of almoſt every man, and that is the incredible increaſe of foreign names upon our pariſh books, and public liſts, compared to what they were even in the reign of George I.

After what has been premiſed, it would be preſumptuous to pretend to aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England and Wales: but, in my own private opinion, there cannot be fewer than 7,000,000.

Engliſhmen, in their perſons, are generally well-ſized, regularly featured, commonly fair rather than otherwiſe, and florid in their complexions. It is, however, to be preſumed that the vaſt number of foreigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives, have given a caſt to their perſons and complexions, different from thoſe of their anceſtors 150 years ago. The women, in their ſhape, features, and complexion, appear ſo graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. But beſide the external graces ſo peculiar to the women in England, they are ſtill to be more valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanlineſs, and a tender affection for their huſbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domeſtic life.

Of all the people in the world, the Engliſh keep themſelves the moſt cleanly. Their nerves are ſo delicate, that people of both ſexes are ſometimes forcibly, nay mortally affected by imagination; inſomuch, that before the practice of inoculation for the ſmall-pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathſome diſeaſe by its true name, in any polite company. This over-ſenſibility has been conſidered as one of the ſources of thoſe ſingularities, which ſo ſtrongly characteriſe the Engliſh nation. They ſometimes magnify the ſlighteſt appearances into realities, and bring the moſt diſtant dangers immediately home to themſelves; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater reſolution or conſtancy of mind. They are fond of clubs and convivial aſſociations: and when theſe are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the beſt cure for thoſe mental evils, which are ſo peculiar to the Engliſh, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

The ſame obſervations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which muſt be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change ſince the acceſſion of the Houſe of Hanover, eſpecially of late years. The Engliſh nobility and gentry of great fortunes now aſſimilate their manners to thoſe of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourſe than their forefathers did. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they viſit, under the tuition perhaps of a deſpicable pedant, or family dependent; but they travel for the purpoſes of ſociety, and at the more advanced ages of life, while their judgments are mature, and their paſſions regulated. This has enlarged

ſociety

ſociety in England, which foreigners now viſit as commonly as Engliſhmen viſited them, and the effects of the intercourſe become daily more viſible, eſpecially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one ſex.

Such of the Engliſh noblemen and gentlemen as do not ſtrike into thoſe high walks of life, affect what we call a ſnug rather than a ſplendid way of living. They ſtudy and underſtand, better than any people in the world, conveniency in their houſes, gardens, equipages, and eſtates; and they ſpare no coſt to purchaſe it. It has however been obſerved, that this turn renders them leſs communicative than they ought to be: but, on the other hand, the few connections they form, are ſincere, cheerful, and indiſſoluble. The like habits deſcend pretty far into the lower ranks, and are often diſcernible among tradeſmen. This love of ſnugneſs and conveniency may be called the ruling paſſion of the Engliſh people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labours, and fatigues, which are incredible. A good economiſt, with a briſk run of trade, is generally, when turned of 50, in a condition to retire from buſineſs; that is, either to purchaſe an eſtate, or ſettle his money in the funds. He then commonly reſides in a comfortable houſe in the country, often his native county, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; but his ſtyle of living is always judiciouſly ſuited to his circumſtances.

The over-ſenſibility of the Engliſh is diſcovered in nothing more than in the vaſt ſubſcriptions for public charities, raiſed by all degrees of both ſexes. An Engliſhman feels all the pains which a fellow-creature ſuffers; and poor and miſerable objects are relieved in England with a liberality that ſome time or other may prove injurious to induſtry, becauſe it takes from the lower ranks the uſual motives of labour, that they may ſave ſomewhat for themſelves and families, againſt the days of age or ſickneſs. The very people who contribute to thoſe collections are aſſeſſed in proportion to their property for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for their maintenance; and upwards of three millions ſterling is ſaid to be collected yearly in this country for charitable purpoſes. The inſtitutions, however, of extra-parochial infirmaries, hoſpitals, and the like, are in ſome caſes reprehenſible. The vaſt ſums beſtowed in building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of phyſicians, who thereby, qualified or unqualified, acquire credit, which is the ſame as profit, very often beget heats and cabals, which are very different from the purpoſes of diſintereſted charity, owing to the violent attachments and prepoſſeſſions of friends, and too often even to party conſiderations.

Notwithſtanding thoſe noble proviſions, which would baniſh poverty from any other country, the ſtreets of London, and the highways of England, abound with objects of diſtreſs, who beg in defiance of the laws, which render the practice ſeverely puniſhable. This is partly owing to the manner in which the common people live, who conſider the food to be uneatable which in other countries would be thought luxurious.

The Engliſh liſten to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deſerved or accidental, and generouſly contribute to the relief of the parties, ſometimes even by placing them in a more creditable condition than ever. The loweſt bred of the Engliſh are capable of theſe and the like generous actions; but they often make an oſtentatious diſplay of their own merits, which diminiſhes their value. There is, among the generality of the Engliſh of all ranks, an unpardonable preference given to wealth, above moſt other conſiderations. Riches, both in public and private, are often thought to compenſate for the abſence of almoſt every good quality. This offenſive failing ariſes partly from the people being ſo much addicted to trade and commerce, the great object of which is gain; and partly from the democratical part of their conſtitution, which

makes the poſſeſſion of property a qualification for the legiſlature, and for almoſt every other ſpecies of magiſtracy, government, honours, and diſtinctions.

An Engliſhman, of education and reading, is the moſt accompliſhed gentleman in the world: he is, however, ſhy and reſerved in his communications. This unamiable coldneſs is ſo far from being affected, that it is a part of their natural conſtitution. Living learning and genius often meet not with their ſuitable regard even from the firſt-rate Engliſhmen; and it is not unuſual for them to throw aſide the beſt productions of literature, if they are not acquainted with the author. While the ſtate diſtinction of Whig and Tory ſubſiſted, the heads of each party affected to patroniſe men of literary abilities; but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate; and the very few who met with preferments in the ſtate, might have earned them by a competent knowledge of buſineſs, and that pliability which the dependents in office generally poſſeſs. We ſcarcely have an inſtance, even in the munificent reign of queen Anne, or of her predeceſſors, who owed ſo much to the preſs, of a man of genius, as ſuch, being made eaſy in his circumſtances. Mr. Addiſon had about 300l. a year of the public money to aſſiſt him in his travels; and Mr. Pope, though a Roman Catholic, was offered, but did not accept of, the like penſion from Mr. Craggs, the whig ſecretary of ſtate; and it was remarked, that his tory friend and companion the earl of Oxford, when ſole miniſter, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a papiſt. Indeed, a few men of diſtinguiſhed literary abilities, as well as ſome without, have of late received penſions from the crown; but from the conduct of ſome of them, it ſhould ſeem that ſtate and party ſervices have been expected in return.

The unevenneſs of the Engliſh in their converſation is very remarkable: ſometimes it is delicate, ſprightly, and replete with true wit; ſometimes it is ſolid, ingenious and argumentative; ſometimes it is cold and phlegmatic, and borders upon diſguſt; and all in the ſame perſon. In many of their convivial meetings they are very noiſy, and their wit is often offenſive, while the loudeſt are the moſt applauded. This is particularly apt to be the caſe in large companies; but in ſmaller and more ſelect parties, all the pleaſures of rational converſation and agreeable ſociety are enjoyed in England in a very high degree. Courage is a quality that ſeems to be congenial to the Engliſh nation. Boys, before they can ſpeak, diſcover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fiſts; a quality that perhaps is peculiar to the Engliſh, and is ſeconded by a ſtrength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives the Engliſh ſoldier an infinite ſuperiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet ſcrewed upon the muſket. The Engliſh courage has likewiſe the property, under able commanders, of being equally paſſive as active. Their ſoldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth of danger; but when they deliver it, it has a moſt dreadful effect upon their enemies; and in naval engagements they are unequalled. The Engliſh are not remarkable for invention, though they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others; and in the mechanical arts they excel all nations in the world. The intenſe application which an Engliſhman gives to a favourite ſtudy is incredible, and, as it were, abſorbs all his other ideas. This creates the numerous inſtances of mental abſence that are to be found in the nation.

All that I have ſaid concerning the Engliſh, is to be underſtood of them in general, as they are at preſent; for it is not to be diſſembled, that every day produces ſtrong indications of great alterations in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immenſe acquiſitions of territory by the peace of 1763, and, above all, the

the amazing increaſe of territorial as well as commercial property in the Eaſt Indies, introduced a ſpecies of people among the Engliſh, who have become rich without induſtry, and, by diminiſhing the value of gold and ſilver, have created a new ſyſtem of finances in the nation. Time alone can ſhew the event; hitherto the conſequence ſeems to have been unfavourable, as it has introduced among the commercial ranks a ſpirit of luxury and gaming that is attended with the moſt fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders of all kinds, to equal, or ſurpaſs the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal manners of men of buſineſs, which prevailed ſo lately as the acceſſion of the preſent family to the crown, are now diſregarded for taſteleſs extravagance of dreſs and equipage, and the moſt expenſive amuſements and diverſions, not only in the capital, but all over the trading towns of the kingdom.

Even the cuſtoms of the Engliſh have, ſince the beginning of this century, undergone an almoſt total alteration. Their ancient hoſpitality ſubſiſts but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering occaſions. Many of their favourite diverſions are now diſuſed. Thoſe remaining are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and ſometimes maſquerades in or near London; but concerts of muſic, and card and dancing aſſemblies, are common all over the kingdom. I have already mentioned ſtag and fox-hunting, and horſe-races, of which many of the Engliſh are fond, even to infatuation. Somewhat however may be offered by way of apology for thoſe diverſions: the intenſe application which the Engliſh give to buſineſs, their ſedentary lives, and luxurious diet, require exerciſe; and ſome think that their excellent breed of horſes is increaſed and improved by thoſe amuſements. The Engliſh are remarkably cool, both in loſing and winning at play; but the former is ſometimes attended with acts of ſuicide. An Engliſhman will rather murder himſelf, than bring a ſharper, who he knows has fleeced him, to condign puniſhment, even though warranted by law. Next to horſe-racing and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diverſion among the great as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both claſſes aſſemble round the pit at one of thoſe matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of this generous animal; every ſpectator being concerned in a bet, ſometimes of high ſums. The athletic diverſion of cricket is ſtill kept up in the ſouthern and weſtern parts of England, and is ſometimes practiſed by people of the higheſt rank. Many other paſtimes are common in England, ſome of them of a very robuſt nature, ſuch as cudgelling, wreſtling, bowls, ſkittles, quoits, and priſon-baſe; not to mention duck-hunting, foot and aſs-races, dancing, puppet-ſhows, May garlands, and, above all, ringing of bells, a ſpecies of muſic which the Engliſh boaſt they have brought into an art. The barbarous diverſion of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England as the ſhews of gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, though often practiſed; and all places of public diverſions, excepting the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diverſions, which are common in other countries, ſuch as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, ſwimming, angling, fowling, courſing, and the like, are familiar to the Engliſh. Two kinds, and thoſe highly laudable, are perhaps peculiar to them; and theſe are rowing and ſailing. The latter, if not introduced, was patroniſed and encouraged by his preſent majeſty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be conſidered as a national improvement. The Engliſh are amazingly fond of ſkating, in which, however, they are not very expert; but they are adventurous in it, often to the danger and loſs of their lives. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diverſion, though without anſwering the purpoſes of the rich: for the

farmers and country people deſtroy the game in their neſts, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among ſo free a people as the Engliſh, has been conſidered in various lights.

Dress.] In the dreſs of both ſexes, before the preſent reign of George III. they followed the French: but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majeſty. The Engliſh, at preſent, bid fair to be the dictators of dreſs to the French themſelves, at leaſt with regard to elegance, neatneſs, and richneſs of attire. People of quality and fortune, of both ſexes, appear, on high occaſions, in cloth of gold and ſilver, the richeſt brocades, ſatins, ſilks, and velvets both flowered and plain: and it is to the honour of the court, that the foreign manufactures of all theſe are diſcouraged. Some of theſe rich ſtuffs are ſaid to be brought to as great perfection in England as they are in France, or any other nation. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occaſions are incredible, eſpecially ſince the vaſt acquiſitions of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies. The ſame nobility, and perſons of diſtinction, on ordinary occaſions, dreſs like creditable citizens, that is, neat, clean, and plain, in the fineſt cloth and the beſt of linen. The full dreſs of a clergyman conſiſts of his gown, caſſock, ſcarf, beaver-hat and roſe, all of black; his undreſs is a dark grey frock, and plain linen. The phyſicians, the formality of whoſe dreſs, in large tie perukes, and ſwords, was formerly remarkable if not ridiculous, begin now to dreſs like other gentlemen, and men of buſineſs. Few Engliſhmen, tradeſmen, merchants, and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without ſome paſſion for the ſports of the field; on which occaſions, they dreſs with remarkable propriety in a light frock, narrow-brimmed hat, &c. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel; but ſince the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, the dreſſes at court, on particular occaſions, are ſuperb beyond deſcription. Few even of the loweſt tradeſmen, on Sundays, carry about them leſs than 10l. in cloathing, comprehending hat, wig, ſtockings, ſhoes, and linen; and even many beggars in the ſtreets appear decent in their dreſs. In ſhort, none but the moſt abandoned of both ſexes are otherwiſe; and the appearance of an artiſan or manufacturer, in holiday times, is commonly an indication of his induſtry and morals.

Religion.] Euſebius, and other ancient writers, poſitively aſſert, that Chriſtianity was firſt preached in South Britain by the apoſtles and their diſciples; and it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe that the ſucceſs of the Romans opened a highway for the triumphs of the goſpel of peace. It is certain alſo, that many of the ſoldiers and officers in the Roman armies were Chriſtians; and as their legions were repeatedly ſent over to England to extend as well as preſerve their conqueſts, it is probable that thus Chriſtianity was diffuſed among the natives. If any of the apoſtles viſited this country and our heathen anceſtors, it was St. Paul, whoſe zeal, diligence, and fortitude were abundant. But who was the firſt preacher, or the preciſe year and period, the want of records leaves us at a loſs; and all the traditions about Joſeph of Arimathea and St. Peter's preaching the goſpel in Britain, and Simon Zelotes ſuffering martyrdom here, are romantic fables, monkiſh legends. We have good authority to ſay, that, about the year 170, a great number of perſons profeſſed the Chriſtian faith here: and, according to archbiſhop Uſſher, in the year 182, there was a ſchool of learning to provide the Britiſh churches with proper teachers; and from that period it ſeems as if Chriſtianity advanced its benign and ſalutary influences among the inhabitants in their ſeveral diſtricts. It is unneceſſary to repeat what has been ſaid in the Introduction reſpecting the riſe and fall of the church of Rome in Europe. I ſhall only obſerve

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in this place, that John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly called in queſtion, and boldly refuted, thoſe doctrines which had paſſed for certain during ſo many ages. The conſtitution of the church is epiſcopal, and it is governed by biſhops, whoſe benefices were converted by the Norman conqueror into temporal baronies, in right of which every biſhop has a ſeat and vote in the houſe of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy are now freehold; but in many places their tithes are impropriated in favour of the laity. The economy of the church of England has been accuſed for the inequality of its livings; ſome of them extending from three hundred to fourteen hundred a year, and many, particularly in Wales, being too ſmall to maintain a clergyman, eſpecially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency; but this ſeems not eaſily to be remedied, unleſs the dignified clergy would adopt and ſupport the reforming ſcheme. The crown, as well as private perſons, has done great things towards the augmentation of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, ſuch as deans, prebendaries and the like, have generally large incomes, ſome of them exceeding in value thoſe of biſhoprics; for which reaſon the revenues of a rich deanry, or other living, are often annexed to a poor biſhopric. At preſent, the clergy of the church of England, as to temporal matters, are in a moſt flouriſhing ſituation, becauſe the value of their tithes increaſes with the improvements of lands, which of late have been amazing in England. The ſovereigns of England, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. have been called, in public writs, the ſupreme heads of the church; but this title conveys no ſpiritual meaning; as it only denotes the regal power, to prevent any eccleſiaſtical differences, or, in other words, to ſubſtitute the king in place of the pope before the reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal economy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in eccleſiaſtical diſputes, unleſs by preventing the convocation from ſitting to agitate them, and are contented to give a ſanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

The church of England, under this deſcription of the monarchical power over it, is governed by two archbiſhops, and twenty-four biſhops, beſides the biſhop of Sodor and Man, who, not being poſſeſſed of an Engliſh barony, does not ſit in the houſe of peers *. The two archbiſhops are

* To the following liſt I have ſubjoined the ſum each ſee is charged in the king's books; for though that ſum is far from being the real annual value of the ſee, yet it will ſerve in forming a comparative eſtimate between the revenues of each ſee and thoſe of another.

ARCHBISHOPRICS.

Canterbury,	£.	2682	12 2	York, £.	1610 0 0

BISHOPRICS.

London,	2000	0	0	Chicheſter,	677	1	3
Durham,	1821	1	3	St. Aſaph,	187	11	8
Winchester,	3124	12	8	Saliſbury,	1385	5	0
Theſe three biſhopries take precedency of all others in England, and the others according to the ſeniority of their conſecrations.				Bangor,	131	16	3
				Norwich,	834	11	7
				Glouceſter,	315	7	3
Ely,	2434	18	6	Lincoln,	894	18	1
Bath and Wells,	533	1	3	Landaff,	154	14	2
Hereford,	768	11	0	Briſtol,	294	11	0
Rocheſter,	358	4	0	Carliſle,	531	4	9
Litchfield and Coventry,	559	17	3	Exeter,	509	0	0
Cheſter,	420	1	8	Peterborough,	414	17	8
Worceſter,	929	13	3	Oxford,	381	11	0
				St. David's,	426	2	1

thoſe of Canterbury and York, who are dignified with the addreſs of Your Grace. The former is the firſt peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the Engliſh church. He takes precedence, next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of ſtate. He is enabled to hold eccleſiaſtical courts upon all affairs that were formerly cogniſable in the court of Rome, when not repugnant to the law of God, or the king's prerogative. He has the privilege conſequently of granting, in certain caſes, licences and diſpenſations, together with the probate of wills, when the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. Beſides his own dioceſe, he has under him the biſhops of London, Wincheſter, Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worceſter, Bath and Wells, Saliſbury, Exeter, Chicheſter, Norwich, Glouceſter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol; and, in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Aſaph, and Bangor.

The archbiſhop of Canterbury has, by the conſtitution and laws of England, ſuch extenſive powers, that, ever ſince the death of archbiſhop Laud (whoſe character will be hereafter given), the government of England has chiefly thought proper to raiſe to that dignity men of very moderate principles; but they have generally been men of conſiderable learning and abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and conſequently of the ſtate.

The archbiſhop of York takes place of all dukes not of the blood royal, and of all officers of ſtate, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in his province, beſides his own dioceſe, the biſhoprics of Durham, Carliſle, Cheſter, and Sodor and Man. In Northumberland, he has the power of a palatine, and juriſdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The biſhops are addreſſed by the appellation of Your Lordſhips, ſtyled "Right reverend fathers in God," and take the precedence of all temporal barons. They have all the privileges of peers; and the biſhoprics of London, Wincheſter, Durham, Saliſbury, Ely, and Lincoln, require no additional revenues to ſupport their prelates in the rank of noblemen. Engliſh biſhops are to examine and ordain prieſts and deacons, to conſecrate churches and burying places, and to adminiſter the rite of confirmation. Their juriſdiction relates to the probation of wills; to grant adminiſtration of goods to ſuch as die inteſtate; to take care of periſhable goods when no one will adminiſter; to collate to benefices; to grant inſtitutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to viſit their own dioceſes once in three years.

Deans and prebendaries of cathedrals have been already mentioned: but it would perhaps be difficult to aſſign their utility in the church, farther than to add to the pomp of worſhip, and to make proviſion for clergymen of eminence and merit; but intereſt often prevails over merit in the appointment. England contains about ſixty archdeacons, whoſe office is to viſit the churches twice or thrice every year; but their offices are leſs lucrative than they are honourable. Subordinate to them are the rural deans, formerly ſtyled arch-preſbyters, who ſignify the biſhop's pleaſure to his clergy, the lower claſs of which conſiſts of prieſts and deacons.

The eccleſiaſtical government of England is, properly ſpeaking, lodged in the convocation, which is a national repreſentative or ſynod, and anſwers pretty nearly to the ideas we have of a parliament. They are convoked at the ſame time with every parliament; and their buſineſs is to conſider of the ſtate of the church, and to call thoſe to an account who have advanced new opinions, inconſiſtent with the doctrines of the church of England. Some high-flying clergymen, during the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George I. raiſed the power of the convocation to a height

height that was inconſiſtent with the principles of religious toleration, and indeed of civil liberty; ſo that the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative of calling the members together, and of diſſolving them, and ever ſince, they have not been permitted to ſit for any time in which they could do buſineſs.

The court of arches is the moſt ancient conſiſtory of the province of Canterbury; and all appeals in church matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to this. The proceſſes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches; and the advocates who plead in this court muſt be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience has the ſame authority with this, to which the archbiſhop's chancery was formerly joined. The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved, and adminiſtration taken out. The courts of peculiars, relating to certain pariſhes, have a juriſdiction among themſelves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the biſhop's courts. The ſee of Canterbury has no leſs than fifteen of theſe peculiars. The court of delegates receives its name from its conſiſting of commiſſioners delegated or appointed by the royal commiſſion; but it is no ſtanding court. Every biſhop has alſo a court of his own, called the conſiſtory court. Every archdeacon has likewiſe his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The church of England is now, beyond any other national church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character; and in England no religious ſect is prevented from worſhipping God in that manner which their conſciences approve. Some ſevere laws were, indeed, lately in force againſt thoſe proteſtant diſſenters who did not aſſent to the doctrinal articles of the church of England; but theſe laws were not executed; and, in 1779, religious liberty received a conſiderable augmentation, by an act which was then paſſed for granting a legal toleration to diſſenting miniſters and ſchoolmaſters, without their ſubſcribing any of the articles of the church of England. Not to enter upon the motives of the reformation under Henry VIII. it is certain that epiſcopal government, excepting the few years from the civil wars under Charles I. to the reſtoration of his ſon, has ever ſince prevailed in England. The wiſdom of acknowledging the king the head of the church, is conſpicuous, in diſcouraging all religious perſecution and intolerancy; and if religious ſects have multiplied in England, it is from the ſame principle that civil licentiouſneſs has prevailed; I mean a tenderneſs in matters that can affect either conſcience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had towards popery in the reign of Henry VIII. and his ſon, and even ſo late as that of Elizabeth, occaſioned an interpoſition of the civil power for a farther reformation. Thence aroſe the *puritans*, ſo called from their maintaining a ſingular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy, pious men, and ſome of them good patriots. Their deſcendants are the modern preſbyterians, who retain the ſame character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty; but their theological ſentiments have undergone a conſiderable change. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan inſtituted by Calvin, and tended to an aboliſion of epiſcopacy, and to veſting the government of the church in a parity of preſbyters. But the modern Engliſh preſbyterians, in their ideas of church government, differ very little from the independents, or congregationaliſts, who are ſo called from holding the independency of congregational churches, without any reſpect to doctrine; and in this ſenſe almoſt all the *diſſenters* in England are now become *independents*. As to points of doctrine, the preſbyterians are generally Arminians.

Many

Many of their miniſters have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their learning and abilities, and ſome of their writings are held in high eſtimation by many of the clergy, and other members of the eſtabliſhed church. The ſame may be ſaid of ſome of the independent and baptiſt miniſters. The independents are generally Calviniſts. The baptiſts do not believe that infants are proper ſubjects of baptiſm, and in the baptiſm of adults they practiſe immerſion into water. They are divided into two claſſes, which are ſtyled general baptiſts, and particular baptiſts. The general baptiſts are Arminians, and the particular baptiſts are Calviniſts. The moderate clergy of the church of England treat the proteſtant diſſenters with affection and friendſhip: and though the hierarchy of their church, and the character of biſhops, are capital points in their religion, they conſider their differences with the preſbyterians, and even with the baptiſts, as not being very material to ſalvation; nor indeed do many of the eſtabliſhed church think that they are ſtrictly and conſcientiouſly bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the thirty-nine articles, which they are obliged to ſubſcribe before they can enter into holy orders. Several of them have of late contended in their writings, that all ſubſcriptions to religious ſyſtems are repugnant to the ſpirit of Chriſtianity, and to reformation. Some doctrines which were formerly generally conſidered as too ſacred to be oppoſed, or even examined, are now publicly controverted, particularly the doctrine of the Trinity. Places of worſhip have been eſtabliſhed, in which that doctrine has been openly renounced; and ſeveral clergymen have thrown up valuable livings in the church, and aſſigned their diſbelief of that doctrine as the motive of their conduct.

The *Methodiſts* are a ſect of a late inſtitution, and their founder is generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitfield, a divine of the church of England; but it is difficult to deſcribe the tenets of this numerous ſect. They pretend to great fervour and devotion; and their founder thought that the form of eccleſiaſtical worſhip, and prayers, whether taken from a common prayer book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of indifference: he accordingly made uſe of both theſe methods. His followers are rigid obſervers of the doctrinal articles of the church of England, and profeſs themſelves to be Calviniſts. But even the ſect of methodiſts is ſplit among themſelves, ſome of them acknowledging Mr. Whitfield, and others Mr. Weſley, for their leader; not to mention a variety of ſubordinate ſects (ſome of whom are from Scotland, particularly the *Sandemanians*) who have their ſeparate followers, but very few, at London and other places in England. Mr. Whitfield died a few years ſince; but the places of worſhip, erected by him near London, are ſtill frequented by perſons of the ſame principles, and they profeſs a great reſpect for his memory. Some of the Calviniſtic doctrines were oppoſed by Mr. Weſley and his followers, particularly that of predeſtination; but they appear ſtill to retain ſome of them. He erected a very large place of public worſhip near Moorfields, and had under him a conſiderable number of ſubordinate preachers, who ſubmitted to their leader very implicitly, propagate his opinions, and make proſelytes throughout the kingdom with great induſtry. After a very long life, ſpent in the moſt ſtrenuous endeavours to do good, and having been bleſt in reforming the morals of thouſands of the lower ranks of ſociety, he died in 1791.

The *Quakers* are a religious ſect, which took its riſe about the middle of the laſt century. A [illegible] account of their tenets having been publiſhed by themſelves, the following is abſtracted from it.

"They believe in one eternal God, the Creator and preſerver of the

univerſe, and in Jeſus Chriſt his Son, the Meſſiah and Mediator of the new covenant.

"When they ſpeak of the miraculous conception, birth, life, miracles, death, reſurrection, and aſcenſion of our Saviour, they uſe ſcriptural terms, and acknowledge his divinity.

"To Chriſt alone they give the title of the Word of God, and not to the ſcriptures, although they highly eſteem theſe ſacred writings, in ſubordination to the ſpirit from which they were given forth.

"They believe (and it is their diſtinguiſhing tenet), that every man coming into the world is endued with a meaſure of the light, grace, or good ſpirit of Chriſt, by which, as it is attended to, he is enabled to diſtinguiſh good from evil, and to correct the corrupt propenſities of his nature, which mere reaſon is altogether inſufficient to overcome.

"They think the influence of the Spirit eſpecially neceſſary to the performance of worſhip; and conſider as obſtructions to pure worſhip, all forms which divert the attention of the mind from the ſecret influence of this unction from the Holy One. They think it incumbent on Chriſtians to meet often together, and to wait in ſilence to have a true ſight of their condition beſtowed upon them; believing even a ſingle ſigh ariſing from ſuch a ſenſe to be more acceptable to God than any performances, however ſpecious, which originate in the will of man.

"As they do not encourage any miniſtry but that which is believed to ſpring from the influence of the Holy Spirit, ſo neither do they reſtrain this influence to perſons of any condition in life, or to the male ſex alone; but as male and female are one in Chriſt, they allow ſuch of the female ſex as are endued with a right qualification for the miniſtry, to exerciſe their gifts for the general edification of the church.

"Reſpecting baptiſm, and what is termed the Lord's ſupper, they believe, that the baptiſm with water, adminiſtered by John, belonged to an inferior and decreaſing diſpenſation.

"With reſpect to the other rite, they believe that communion between Chriſt and his church is not maintained by any external performance; but only by a real participation of his divine nature by faith.

"They declare againſt oaths and war; abiding literally by Chriſt's poſitive injunction, "Swear not at all." From the precepts of the goſpel, from the example of our Lord, and from his ſpirit in their hearts, they maintain that wars and fightings are repugnant to the goſpel.

"They diſuſe the names of the months and days, which were given in honour of the heroes or falſe gods of the heathens; and the cuſtom of ſpeaking to a ſingle perſon in the plural number, as having ariſen alſo from motives of adulation. Compliments, ſuperfluity of apparel and furniture, outward ſhows of rejoicing and mourning, and obſervations of days and times, they eſteem to be incompatible with the ſimplicity and ſincerity of a Chriſtian life; and public diverſions, gaming, and other vain amuſements of the world, they condemn as a waſte of time, and diverting the attention of the mind from the ſober duties of life.

"This ſociety hath a diſcipline eſtabliſhed among them, the purpoſes of which are the relief of the poor—the maintenance of good order—the ſupport of the teſtimonies which they believe it is their duty to bear to the world—and the help and recovery of ſuch as are overtaken in faults.

"It is their decided judgment that it is contrary to the goſpel to ſue each other at law. They enjoin all to end their differences by ſpeedy and impartial arbitration according to rules laid down. If any refuſe to adopt this mode, or, having adopted it, to ſubmit to the award, it is the rule of the ſociety that ſuch be diſowned."

It

It is well known that William Penn, one of this ſociety, founded the province of Pennſylvania, and introduced therein a plan of civil and religious liberty, particularly of the latter, at that time unexampled. The government of the province was at firſt, and for many years, chiefly in the hands of the quakers; but as perſons of other perſuaſions increaſed, and became partakers of power, they grew uneaſy at the pacific plan of the quakers, and at length ſucceeding to eſtabliſh ſuch modes of defence for their country as did not accord with the principles of the latter, theſe gradually withdrew themſelves from active employments of the ſtate. For ſome time previous to the late revolution, few of them were found in any other ſtation than that of private citizens; and during its progreſs, their refuſing to arm expoſed them to much ſuffering, by diſtraints levied on them, in order to procure their quota in ſupport of the war.

Many families in England ſtill profeſs the Roman catholic religion, and its exerciſe is under very mild and gentle reſtrictions. Though the penal laws againſt papiſts in England appear at firſt to be ſevere, yet they are either not executed, or with ſo much lenity, that a Roman catholic feels himſelf under few hardſhips. Legal evaſions are found out for the double taxes upon their landed property; and, as they are ſubject to none of the expenſes and troubles (unleſs voluntary) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burdens, the Engliſh papiſts are in general in good circumſtances as to their private fortunes. Some of the penal laws againſt them have alſo lately been repealed, much to the ſatisfaction of all liberal-minded men, though a vehement outcry was afterwards raiſed againſt the meaſure by ignorance and bigotry. The papiſts now ſeem to be convinced that a change of government, inſtead of bettering, would hurt their ſituation, becauſe it would increaſe the jealouſy of the legiſlature, which muſt undoubtedly expoſe them daily to greater burdens and heavier penalties. This ſenſible conſideration has of late made the Roman catholics to appear as dutiful and zealous ſubjects as any his majeſty has. Scarcely any Engliſh papiſts, excepting thoſe who were bred or had ſerved abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745; and though thoſe at home were moſt carefully obſerved, few or none of them were found guilty of diſloyal practices.

As England has been famous for the variety of its religious ſects, ſo it has alſo for its *Free-thinkers*; but that term has been applied in very different ſenſes. It has ſometimes been uſed to denote oppoſers of religion in general, and in particular of revealed religion: but it has alſo been applied to thoſe who have been far from diſbelieving Chriſtianity, and who have only oppoſed ſome of thoſe doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceive to be no part of the original Chriſtian ſyſtem. As to thoſe who are truly *deiſts* or *infidels*, there is abundant reaſon to believe that this claſs of men is much more numerous in ſome popiſh countries than in England. Chriſtianity is ſo much obſcured and diſfigured by the fopperies and ſuperſtitions of the Romiſh church, that men who think freely are naturally apt to be prejudiced againſt it, when they ſee it in ſo diſadvantageous a form: and this appears to be in fact very much the caſe abroad. But in England, where men have every opportunity of ſeeing it exhibited in a more rational manner, they have leſs cauſe to be prejudiced againſt it; and therefore are more ready to enter into an examination of the evidence of its divine origin. Nor does it appear that the writings of the deiſts againſt Chriſtianity have been of any real diſſervice to it. On the contrary, they have cauſed the arguments in its favour to be uſed with greater force and clearneſs, and have been the means of producing ſuch defences of it, as all the acuteneſs of modern infidelity has been unable to overthrow.

LAN-

LANGUAGE.] The Engliſh language is known to be a compound of almoſt every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon, however, predominates; and the words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. To deſcribe it abſtractedly, would be ſuperfluous to an Engliſh reader; but relatively, it enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects, of other European languages. It is more energetic, manly, and expreſſive, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spaniſh, and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is however ſubject to ſome conſiderable provincialities in its accent, there being much difference in the pronunciation of the inhabitants of different counties; but this chiefly affects the loweſt of the people; for as to well-educated and well-bred perſons, there is little difference in their pronunciation all over the kingdom. People of fortune and education in England, of both ſexes, alſo commonly either ſpeak or underſtand the French, and many of them the Italian and Spaniſh: but it has been obſerved, that foreign nations have great difficulty in underſtanding the few Engliſh who talk Latin, which is perhaps the reaſon why that language is much diſuſed in England, even by the learned profeſſions.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] England may be looked upon as another word for the ſeat of learning and the Muſes. Her great Alfred cultivated both, in the time of the Saxons, when barbariſm and ignorance overſpread the reſt of Europe; nor has there, ſince his time, been wanting a continual ſucceſſion of learned men, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings or ſtudies. Theſe are ſo numerous, that a bare catalogue of their names, down to this day, would form a moderate volume.

The Engliſh inſtitutions, for the benefit of ſtudy, partake of the character of their learning. They are ſolid and ſubſtantial, and provide for the eaſe, the diſencumbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the conveniency of its profeſſors; witneſs the two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, inſtitutions that are not to be matched in the world, and which were reſpected even amidſt the barbarous rage of civil war. The induſtrious Leland, who was himſelf a moving library, was the firſt who publiſhed a ſhort collection of the lives and characters of thoſe learned perſons who preceded the reign of his maſter Henry VIII. among whom he has inſerted ſeveral of the blood royal of both ſexes, particularly a ſon and daughter of the great Alfred, Editha, the queen of Edward the Confeſſor, and other Saxon princes, ſome of whom were equally devoted to Mars and the Muſes.

In ſpeaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable if I ſhould omit the mention of that prodigy of learning and natural philoſophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in ſcience to the great Bacon lord Verulam, as the latter was to ſir Iſaac Newton. Among the other curious works written by this illuſtrious man, we find treatiſes upon grammar, mathematics, phyſics, the flux and reflux of the Britiſh ſea, optics, geography, aſtronomy, chronology, chemiſtry, logic, metaphyſics, ethics, medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford about the year 1294. The honourable Mr. Walpole has preſerved the memory of ſome noble and royal Engliſh authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muſes; and to his work I muſt refer. Since the Reformation, England reſembles a galaxy of literature *; and it is but doing juſtice to the memory of cardinal Wolſey, though otherwiſe a dangerous and profligate miniſter, to acknowledge, that both his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the revival of claſſical

* See the Biographia Britannica.

learning

learning in England. As many of the Engliſh clergy had different ſentiments in religious matters at the time of the Reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners to ſettle in England. Edward VI. during his ſhort life, did a great deal for the encouragement of theſe foreigners, and ſhowed diſpoſitions for cultivating the moſt uſeful parts of learning, had he lived. Learning, as well as liberty, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe in England, during the bloody bigoted reign of queen Mary. Elizabeth, her ſiſter, was herſelf a learned princeſs. She advanced many perſons of conſummate abilities to high ranks, both in church and ſtate; but ſhe ſeems to have conſidered their literary accompliſhments to have been only ſecondary to their civil. In this ſhe ſhowed herſelf a great politician; but ſhe would have been a more amiable queen, had ſhe raiſed genius from obſcurity: for though ſhe was no ſtranger to Spencer's Muſe, ſhe ſuffered herſelf to be ſo much impoſed upon by a taſteleſs miniſter, that the poet languiſhed to death in obſcurity. Though ſhe taſted the beauties of the divine Shakeſpeare, yet we know not that they were diſtinguiſhed by any particular acts of her munificence; but her parſimony was nobly ſupplied by her favourite the earl of Eſſex, the politeſt ſcholar of his age, and his friend the earl of Southampton, who were liberal patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Caſaubon, and other foreign authors of diſtinction, even of different principles. He was himſelf no great author, but his example had a conſiderable effect upon his ſubjects; for in his reign were formed thoſe great maſters of polemic divinity, whoſe works are almoſt inexhauſtible mines of knowledge. Nor muſt it be forgotten, that the ſecond Bacon, whom I have already mentioned, was by him created viſcount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewiſe the patron of Camden and other hiſtorians, as well as antiquaries, whoſe works are to this day ſtandards in thoſe ſtudies. Upon the whole, therefore, it cannot be denied, that Engliſh learning is under obligations to James I. though, as he had a very pedantic taſte himſelf, he was the means of diffuſing a ſimilar taſte among his ſubjects.

His ſon Charles I. had a taſte for the polite arts, eſpecially ſculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artiſts; ſo that, had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital into a ſecond Athens; and the collections he made for that purpoſe, conſidering his pecuniary difficulties, were ſtupendous. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that reſpect, and laid out the amazing ſum of 400,000l. upon his cabinet of paintings and curioſities.

The earl of Arundel was, however, the great Mæcenas of that age, and by the immenſe acquiſition he made of antiquities, eſpecially his famous marble inſcriptions, he may ſtand upon a footing, as to the encouragement and utility of literature, with the greateſt of the Medicean princes. Charles and his court had little or no reliſh for poetry; but ſuch was his generoſity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increaſed the ſalary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben Johnſon, from 100 marks to 100l. per annum, and a tierce of Spaniſh wine; which ſalary is continued to this day.

The public encouragement of learning and the arts ſuffered indeed an eclipſe, during the time of the civil wars, and the ſucceeding interregnum. Many very learned men, however, found their ſituations under Cromwell, though he was no ſtranger to their political ſentiments, ſo eaſy, that they followed their ſtudies, to the vaſt benefit of every branch of learning: and many works of vaſt literary merit appeared even in thoſe times of diſtraction. Uſher, Walton, Willes, Harrington, Wilkins,